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College of Social
Sciences

Exploring Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers' (LEFLUTs) Professional
Development (PD) Needs: Supporting LEFLUTs through the Provision of CPD material

By

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A Thesis Submitted in Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of
Philosophy (PhD)

School of Education
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February 2019

Dedication

I dedicate this work to my wife Muna Almartagi, to my parents, and to brothers.

Abstract

This study aimed to develop Continuing Professional Development (CPD) material for Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs). This interpretivist study outlines an interactive research process using the qualitative research instruments of scenarios, focus groups and field notes.

The LEFLUTs start their teaching profession after successful completion of Masters or PhD degrees and so possess good content knowledge. However, they do not usually have as much general pedagogical knowledge as content knowledge and the only opportunity for them to develop this knowledge is through unstructured individual approaches. I argue here that this lack of appropriate CPD activities hinders the LEFLUTs' professional learning and affects their teaching practice.

I explored literature on CPD models to identify the key and effective features of CPD and I follow the view that CPD is more effective and more successful when it is based on a model that is collaborative, reflective and sustainable and involves coaching/mentoring. Drawing on this, I designed ten scenarios to explore LEFLUTs' professional development needs by working with fourteen LEFLUTs. In my study, the LEFLUTs talked about knowledge of teaching methods and approaches, knowledge of learners, knowledge of classroom management and knowledge of curriculum design and adaptation. Moreover, they mentioned collaboration, reflection and sustainability as key features they would appreciate in CPD material which would include coaching and mentoring. In order to clarify and extend some of the information that I learned from the scenarios, I worked in greater depth with four of the LEFLUTs who were studying for PhD degrees here at the University of Glasgow. In this part of the study, I gained more precise and deeper understanding of CPD needs including the group's knowledge about learners, classroom management, approaches to teaching reading, lesson planning, evaluation and curriculum design and development. This group also talked of collaboration, reflection, sustainability, coaching and observation.

After this, I informally observed a CPD model in action to see whether it provided any further ideas for developing CPD material. I shadowed a CPD programme designed for new university teachers from across the institution. It was not specific to any discipline and it focused on interactive teaching, learning styles and strategies and classroom management. It also involved collaboration, reflection, sustainability, coaching and observation.

Based on the findings from the CPD literature, needs analysis (scenarios and focus group) and fieldnotes from my observation of the CPD for university staff, I found that collaboration, reflection, sustainability and coaching and observation were desirable features of CPD. As a result, I developed CPD material based on the LEFLUTs' Language Teacher Knowledge Base requirements (classroom management, lesson management, learners' knowledge, and collaborative learning). Unfortunately, I was not able to return to Libya to trial this material and so I focus on its development in this thesis.

In order to be able to teach this content meaningfully, I used different approaches and activities to embed desirable features of CPD and I report those here. For example, collaboration was achieved through engaging the participants in formal and informal collaboration amongst themselves and with their tutors during every workshop of the CPD material. In addition, reflection was embedded through encouraging the participants to relate the sessions to their own practices and experiences through various reflective approaches such as discussion groups, observations and portfolios. The participants would also be asked to observe each other and reflect on and provide feedback on their practices.

In terms of sustainability, the material was designed to involve the participants in inquiry procedures throughout to encourage them to engage in ongoing questioning and learning through various collaborative and reflective activities including discussion groups, observation and portfolios and hence continuing development. Moreover, the participants would complete a professional development plan (PDP) at the end of the programme in which they outline their plans for future development. Finally, after each session, the participants are to be involved in coaching and observation tasks. The coaching will be conducted by the trainer after each session to monitor the participants' progress and to support their implementation of new strategies.

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Acknowledgements

I acknowledge this work to the help of the Almighty Lord without whom it would not have been possible to do this research. So, praise be to Allah for guiding and helping me through this.

In addition, Prophet Mohammed Peace and Blessings of Allah Be Upon him said, “He has not thanked Allah who has not thanked people”. Therefore, I would like to thank all those teachers, supervisors, colleagues, family members and friends for all the help and support they provided to me to complete this work.

My sincere gratitude to my wife who did all she could to help me to finish this work and stood beside me in health and illness. My gratitude to my family back home who pushed me all the way through when I needed their support.

Many thanks to my university, Omar Almukhtar University, for having granted me this opportunity to do a PhD study. I also thank all my colleagues here in the UK and back home who dedicated their time to participate in my research.

Thanks to my supervisors Dr. Esther Daborn and Dr. Beth Dickson for their guidance, patience and invaluable advice. Many thanks to my colleague Gaelle Macfarlane for her support, advice and providing references and material for my research and CPD material. My sincere gratitude to Prof. Nicki Hedge and Dr. Carole MacDiarmid who helped me during the time of the post-viva correction stage to re-present my research to its current level and standards. My thanks, too, to my examiners who asked for changes to my thesis which, I hope, have made it a much better work.

I should not forget all those staff members at the University of Glasgow: our postgraduate office at the School of Education, the Teaching and Learning Centre, and the Researcher Development Team.

Author's Declaration

I declare that except where explicit reference is made to the contribution of others, that this dissertation is the result of my own work and has not been submitted for any other degree at the University of Glasgow or any other institution.

Signature:

A handwritten signature in black ink, consisting of a large, rounded loop followed by several horizontal strokes.

Printed name: Salah O. I. Omar

Abbreviations

ALM	Audio-Lingual Method
CC	Communicative Competence
CK	Content Knowledge
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
CPD	Continuing Professional Development
DM	Direct Method
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
EP	Exploratory Practice
ESL	English as a Second Language
GPK	General Pedagogical Knowledge
GTM	Grammar Translation Method
INSET	In-Service Education and Training
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
LEFLUTs	Libyan English as Foreign Language School Teachers
NS	Native Speaker
NNS	Non-Native Speaker
PCK	Pedagogical Content Knowledge
PD	Professional Development
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
TBLT	Task-Based Language Teaching
TKB	Teacher Knowledge-Base

Chapter 1 Background to the Study and Thesis

1.1 Introduction

In my postgraduate studies (Master of Education: MEd) that I completed at the University of Glasgow in 2010, I explored Libyan secondary school English as a Foreign Language (EFL) materials, a choice that was inspired by my five-year teaching experience in Libyan secondary schools. In that research, I evaluated the Libyan EFL material and found that there seemed to be a gap between the content of the coursebook and the students' actual needs and situation. After I finished that study, I went back to Libya and taught EFL at a Libyan university for three academic years from 2011 until 2013. During this short period, I saw that the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers seem to be left alone in their teaching without any appropriate support to help them to cope with the challenges of their work (Abosnan 2016; Elabbar 2011; Suwaed 2011). At this stage, I started thinking about these teachers and what might support them to improve their situation. These Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers seem to be faced with many contextual challenges such as large classes, students with what they perceived to be low aptitude and motivation, a lack of professional motivation and resources and, perhaps most importantly, a lack of professional development opportunities to support them to develop their knowledge, improve their practice and continue developing as teachers.

According to Bakkenes *et al.* (2010, p. 536), professional development, hereafter often PD, is an active process in which teachers “engage in activities that lead to a change in knowledge and beliefs (cognition) and/or teaching practices (behaviour)”. Following this definition, one opportunity to support teachers' learning is through developing appropriate PD activities and providing appropriate skills, expertise, research opportunities and facilities and resources to support teachers to develop their knowledge and skills and to continue learning. As I was not in a position to do anything about initial teacher education, I decided to focus on in-service teacher development and education, sometimes referred to as INSET. According to Mann (2005), initial teacher education, also referred to as pre-service training, aims to guide teachers on pedagogical choices, English Language Teaching (ELT) techniques and strategies and course design and material development which are necessary for new teacher learners. In contrast, Bolam (1982) describes INSET as:

those education and training activities engaged in by secondary and primary school teachers and principals, following their initial professional certification, and intended mainly or exclusively to improve their professional knowledge, skills, and attitudes in order that they can educate children more effectively (p. 3).

In this thesis, I regard INSET as a form of Continuing Professional Development, hereafter CPD. In Libya, the teachers with whom I am working have studied what Bolam (1982, p. 3) referred to as 'initial professional certification' in their final year of their undergraduate degrees but that study prepares them for teaching in schools. I discuss this in greater depth in Chapter Two, but it is important to note, at this early stage, that the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers who are the focus of this study have not received any initial training in teaching in universities. For this group, hereafter referred to as LEFLUTs (Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers), the Continuing, the 'C' in CPD', needs to be understood in the particular context of Libyan university teaching. The 'C' in CPD will be a continuation of their initial work in pedagogy and curriculum but it will be initial, rather than continuing, professional development with respect to teaching in universities.

CPD refers to the activities that are provided to improve teachers' practice and prepare them for present or future performance (Little, 1990b). For Kennedy (2007), CPD is "anything that has been undertaken to progress, assist or enhance a teacher's professionalism" (p. 105). In this regard, it might be assumed that CPD would be very important for the LEFLUTs who, as I will show, lack the support for PD, but who seek to change and enhance their teaching practice. According to Clarke and Hollingsworth (2002), CPD programmes attempt to change the beliefs and attitudes of teachers in order to change their classroom practices and behaviours and ultimately CPD is designed to lead to students' better learning and achievements. Desimone (2009) also explained that CPD is one of the key factors in improving the quality of teaching in educational institutions and so increasing learners' achievements as well as linking teaching policies with teaching practice. Following these definitions, CPD might be an important route for the Libyan government to pursue in its attempts to develop the education sector and improve the teaching and learning of English in Higher Educational Institutions (HEIs).

I develop understandings of INSET and CPD in Chapter Four, but in this introductory Chapter One I focus now on the research problem, aims and questions and importance of this study.

1.2 Research Problem

On undertaking this research study, I suggest that the main challenge facing the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) is professional development (PD) through which they might develop appropriate up-to-date teacher knowledge and improve their practice. I develop an account of teacher knowledge and its elements in more depth in Chapter Three, but at the moment it can be understood as a form of professional knowledge that includes both content knowledge and general pedagogical knowledge. Content knowledge can be defined as the language teachers' knowledge of subject matter such as linguistics, syntax or discourse. In contrast, general pedagogical knowledge refers to the language teachers' knowledge of general principles, methods and techniques for presenting content knowledge.

In Libya, there is a belief that the LEFLUTs are qualified enough to teach English based on their degree certificates even though they do not have adequate general pedagogical knowledge for teaching and learning in universities. However, Day (2002) explains that good teaching does not simply mean being efficient, developing competence, mastering techniques and possessing enough content knowledge. Good teaching, as Hargreaves (1995, p. 8) sees it, involves "emotional investment, and political awareness, adeptness and acuity". It follows that if language teachers do not possess enough general pedagogical knowledge or have PD opportunities, then these teachers' practice will be guided mainly by their own beliefs, attitudes and previous learning and teaching experiences. In addition, this suggests that language teachers, including the LEFLUTs, need different types of knowledge to become more effective teachers.

Besides having inadequate general pedagogical knowledge, my own experience suggests that there appears to be a gap between the LEFLUTs' knowledge and their actual classroom teaching practice and this is supported by Elabbar (2011) and Abosnan (2016). The literature shows that language teachers operate through two types of knowledge: declarative knowledge and practical knowledge. Declarative knowledge encompasses content knowledge and general pedagogical knowledge whereas practical knowledge refers to the teacher's ability to transform these two knowledge types into practical and comprehensible representations (Andrews and McNeill, 2005). Wyatt and Borg (2011) found that ELT teachers may develop their declarative knowledge without making changes in their practical and instructional behaviours or exhibit practical changes which are not related to the changes in their declarative knowledge. This suggests that novice or

inexperienced language teachers, such as the LEFLUTs, would require some sort of CPD activities to help them to do better and transform their declarative knowledge into practical representations and behaviours.

In this section, I have suggested that teacher knowledge is a major problem for the LEFLUTs and their practice and that the LEFLUTs could do better with appropriate support such as CPD. Teacher knowledge remains the most serious and unsolved problem in education and a major concern to most teachers even in the most developed countries such as the UK, Europe and USA (Sykes, 1996; Rutkowski *et al.*, 2013). According to Rosaen *et al.* (2013), there appears to be an international acknowledgement that developing teachers' practice leads to improved educational opportunities for all students which encouraged nearly half of the European Union countries, including Scotland, and most the states in the USA to make CPD a compulsory requirement for their teachers (EURYDICE, 2003; Wilson *et al.*, 2006). Accordingly, it might be assumed that providing PD opportunities for the LEFLUTs would support them to develop their knowledge, improve their practice in order to ultimately improve their students' achievements. Having identified the research problem, I shall now turn to my research aims and how I set out to achieve these.

1.3 Research Aims

My three-year teaching experience as a Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teacher (LEFLUT) made me realise that there was a gap in my knowledge of the teacher support and development situation that required further investigation. In the previous two sections, I suggested that an inadequate knowledge base and a lack of appropriate CPD activities appear to be the main challenge facing the LEFLUTs. Consequently, and drawing on my own knowledge of the LEFLUTs and their situation and the recommendations of two previous studies on the LEFLUTs conducted by Elabbar (2011) and Suwaed (2011), I decided to conduct my research on this group and to explore the LEFLUTs' knowledge, identify their professional development (PD) needs and provide CPD material for them.

To achieve the above main aims of this study, to explore the LEFLUTs' knowledge, identify their PD needs and provide CPD material, I developed several research questions through which I would explore the LEFLUTs' knowledge and views and perceptions about their PD needs. These research questions are discussed in the next section below.

1.4 Research Question

According to Ary *et al.* (2010), surveying the literature help researchers to formulate and limit the number of their research questions. The identification of research questions is considered a basic stage in any research study because it directs the investigation, sets the limitation and scope of study and leads to a completion of the study (Hatch, 2010). To achieve the aim of this study and develop a CPD model for the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs), I developed the following research questions:

1. How do the LEFLUTs perceive the relationship between their knowledge and practice?
2. What kinds of knowledge do the LEFLUTs think they need?
3. What are the LEFLUTs views about the support they have?
4. How do the LEFLUTs conceptualise their profession and learning?
5. What opportunities do they have for professional learning?
6. What characteristics would a model of CPD developed for them have?

However, the above questions developed and changed over time during the research process and data collection. According to Hays and Singh (2012), the research data may suggest that the “original research question be modified because research is a nonlinear and emerging process and data collection and analysis occur simultaneously” (p. 129). Based on an iterative approach, the current study reduced the above questions into three main research questions:

1. What kind of knowledge do the LEFLUTs think they need?
2. What opportunities do the LEFLUTs have for professional learning?
3. What are desirable characteristics of a CPD model?

These research questions were addressed by developing appropriate research tools, which I thoroughly discuss in Chapter Five. Identifying the LEFLUTs’ professional development (PD) needs would be important to provide appropriate opportunities for them to develop their knowledge, improve their practice and enhance their students’ learning experiences and these two aims, besides those already noted, indicate the importance of my study to which I turn next.

1.5 Importance of the Study

The significance of this study lies in investigation of the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers' (LEFLUTs) views and perceptions about their professional development (PD) needs and in the development of CPD material providing professional learning for them. To date, as far as I know, this research is the only study based in Libya that uses insights from the LEFLUTs and offers a practical approach through which they might develop their knowledge, enhance their practice and continue developing. By exploring the LEFLUTs' knowledge, this study will focus on the knowledge that guides their teaching practice and decision making and identify its constituents. In doing so, this study aims to deepen an understanding of the relationship between the LEFLUTs' knowledge and practice and to identify and provide explanations for any gaps in their knowledge. Importantly too, this study may help the LEFLUTs to conceptualise their own knowledge, understand their practice and identify their own areas for improvement and PD needs. More precisely, processes such as the consultation of the LEFLUTs on their PD needs, the investigation and analysis of their knowledge base and the development of CPD material for them is new and this helps to make this study different and important.

1.6 Organisation of Thesis

This thesis consists of Eight Chapters:

- Chapter One is an introduction to the topic and related issues for investigation: professional learning, CPD, teacher knowledge, the research problem, aims, questions, the importance of the study and organisation of thesis.
- Chapter Two provides a brief account of Libya's geography and political history in order to identify the research setting and understand the political influences on the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers' (LEFLUTs) education. In addition, the chapter presents and discusses the development of the Libyan education system and English Language Teaching (ELT) including language policy and ELT material. This section will help the reader to understand the influences of the political history and language policy on the Libyan education system and ELT development. Then, the chapter provides a biography of the LEFLUTs: their educational background and teaching and learning experiences so providing knowledge of the LEFLUTs' education and profession.

- In Chapter Three, theories of language learning: structuralism/behaviourism, cognitivism and constructivism, are discussed and critiqued. Then, approaches of language teaching: grammar translation method, direct method, Audiolingual method, communicative language teaching and task-based learning are presented and discussed. Finally, the chapter identifies and discusses the components of the language teacher knowledge-base.
- Chapter Four presents and discusses CPD literature. In doing so, the chapter defines CPD, presents and summarises major CPD models and considers these in relation to the Libyan context and the LEFLUTs' needs.
- The fifth chapter describes the overall theoretical framework of the study to justify the research phases and research data collection tools. In doing so, the chapter discusses and explains research methodology (interpretative and qualitative), the research tools (scenarios, focus group and fieldnotes), and the research characteristics. In addition, the research also describes the steps taken to consider ethical issues in the conduct of the research.
- Chapter Six discusses the process of data analysis with a presentation of findings and an interpretation of the data.
- In Chapter Seven, the processes and principles of designing the CPD model based on the CPD literature and research data is presented and explained. Having discussed theoretical bases of the developed CPD, the chapter outlines the content of the designed CPD model including objectives of the model, the sequence and order of content, learning outcomes and the delivery approach.
- Chapter Eight addresses the research questions in relation to the findings. It also summarises the developed CPD model, suggests recommendations and considerations for future research and concludes with a personal reflection on my experience of and learning from this study.

Chapter 2 Background to the Context of the Study:

Libya

2.1 Introduction

This chapter will present an account of the Libyan education system and English Language Teaching (ELT) taking into consideration historical developments in policy, politics, the economy and culture over various periods of time. Before discussing the development of CPD for the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs), it is important to understand the context, Libya, in which they are practising their profession and in which the CPD material would be implemented. According to Holliday (1994), context refers to the contextual factors around which the teaching and learning process takes place. These factors are extremely important and must be considered when preparing and suggesting the adoption of any teaching and learning activities and the methodology to implement them. Some of these contextual factors are non-linguistic and non-textual, but they influence teaching and learning to a large degree (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000).

As illustrated in Figure One below, with a land mass of approximately 1, 775, 500 km², Libya is located on the north coast of the African continent and bordered by Tunisia (459 km) and Algeria (982 km) on the west, Niger (354 km) and Chad (1, 055 km) on the south, and Egypt (1, 115 km) and Sudan (383 km) on the east (Otman and Karlberg, 2007).



Figure 1- Map of Libya Adopted from Blanchard (2016, p. 2)

Libya has been ruled, invaded and settled by different rulers, occupiers and civilisations, and this appears to have had a strong impact on its identity and culture, including the education system and English Language Teaching (ELT). Metz (1989) states that until Gadhafi's bloodless coup, only a few Westerners had much knowledge about Libya apart from it being a desert, having the ruins of ancient Cyrene and Tripoli, or as a battle field of some World War II battles such as Al Alamein. More recently, Vandewalle (2012) notes that much of what most people know about Libya is linked with Mu'ammar Al Gadhafi's regime and his political heritage. Because of this, I shall, in the sections below, present and discuss the development of the Libyan education system and ELT during different periods to provide an understanding of the context of this study.

2.2 The Education System of Libya

Inevitably, as Libya has been settled, occupied and ruled by various powers, its education system carries the imprints of those people and their civilizations, and it also appears to have had serious impacts on the teaching and learning of foreign languages in Libya. In the following section, I will present the development and process of the Libyan education during various times and explain how these have influenced the teaching and learning of foreign languages.

The Education System During the Ottomans 1551-1911

In 1551, the Ottomans, (see Appendix One on key events in Libya during this period), conquered Libya and established an education system based on Kuttabs or Quranic schools to encourage the teaching and learning of Islam (Vandewalle, 2006). These Kuttabs taught children the Holy Quran, science, geography, history, mathematics, medicine, religion, Arabic, French, English and military arts (Otman and Karlberg, 2007; Falola *et al.*, 2012). On establishing these Kuttabs, the Ottomans founded an education system based on religious practices and, inevitably, approached through a Quranic method which often draws on the same principles as those adopted by traditional ELT methodologies such as grammar translation and audiolingual methods. I develop an account of the theoretical and practical principles of these two methods in more depth in Chapter Three but, in brief, both grammar translation and audiolingual methods usually encourage teacher control and decrease the role of the learners who often become passive listeners.

In the Quranic Method, the teacher, called a Sheikh or Imam who is usually a religious leader, is considered the only knower of knowledge with a powerful role over the teaching and learning process, and the learners are treated as empty vases to be filled with information (Alsadik and Abdulkarim, 2012). The principles and the meaning of the Quranic method may be best understood by the translation of the word Quran itself from Arabic into English. If we look at the translation and meaning of Quran, we may identify key words that represent the basic principles of the Quranic method such as speak, listen, read, recite, command, and obey. Thus, the teacher, reads and recites verses from the Quran while the students listen and repeat after him. In other words, the teacher commands and the students obey. The Quranic method resembles the grammar translation and audiolingual methods in terms of the methodology - the teacher has a high status and power, and students are passive and fully dependent on the teacher. The teacher reads the verses from the holy Book, and the students repeat after him/her until they get it right and then they memorise it and recite it to the teacher who makes sure that they pronounce it correctly. There is a religious, a faith respect, for the teacher as the complete authority who speaks while the students listen and obey. Having said this, the Quranic method does not necessarily reflect how the Quran should be taught or learned. For example, many verses in the Holy Book of the Quran state that human beings are required to meditate, reflect, recall, consider, and question knowledge and the nature around them. This suggests that the Quranic method appears to have been developed by the teachers in the Kuttabs based on their own teaching and learning experiences but, also, the Quranic method has become the most commonly used method of teaching and learning all subjects in Libyan schools, including foreign languages (Alotaibi, 2014).

In addition to the Quranic method, the early Ottomans recognised Arabic language as the official language in the country and the medium of instruction in all institutions of education (Falola *et al.*, 2012). However, with the emergence of a secular Turkey in 1868, the Arabic language was replaced by both Turkish and French languages as the languages of instruction because these two languages were the languages of the two strong empires at that time (Falola *et al.*, 2012). Replacing Arabic, the language of the Holy Quran, with Turkish and French languages and closing the Kuttabs appears to have provoked the Libyan people's hatred of the Ottomans and it may have encouraged negative attitudes amongst Libyans towards foreign languages and cultures, including the English language. In addition, the Ottomans' policy encouraged many Libyans to send their children to the Kuttabs where they received education through the Quranic method (Vandewalle, 2012).

As I explain in Chapter Three, the way Libyan children were taught to learn Arabic language and the holy Quran (the Quranic Method) was translated into the language classroom. As a result, when English language was introduced in Libya, the grammar translation and audiolingual methods often became the most common methods of teaching and learning foreign languages in Libya and that has continued until the present day (Latiwish, 2003; Alrahwy, 2008; Al Rifai, 2010; Soliman, 2013). The Ottomans' rule of Libya provoked opposition from the Libyan people because they thought it to be corrupt and repressive, and the Ottomans gradually lost their sovereignty over Libya until they completely gave up Libya to Italy in the Treaty of Ouchy in 1912 (Vandewalle, 2012).

The Education System during the Italian Occupation 1912-1942

Following the Italian occupation to Libya in 1913 (see Appendix One), the Italian Ministry for Colonies restricted the education of Libyan children to the primary level because there was a need to train the local people for the labour force required to build the colony. Additionally, Italian citizens in its colonies to preserve their native culture, language and religion rights and involved local elites in colonial administrations (Pretelli, 2011). As a result, the Libyans started learning the Italian language but at the same time preserved their language and culture and continued to send their children to the Kuttabs. In new Italian-Arabic schools supervised by the Italian authorities, the Italian and Libyan children studied a standard Italian school curriculum, but there was a three-year programme of Italian language and history and Quran and Arabic classes for the Libyan children (Pretelli, 2011). The Italian policy encouraged many Libyans to learn the Italian language and enrol in the new Italian schools and it fostered the integration of many Libyans into the Italian culture (Pretelli, 2011).

However, when major changes in the Italian policy and leadership took place between 1922-1943, the Libyan people were prevented from attending the Italian schools, and the Arabic language was substituted by the Italian language as the medium of instruction in all schools except for specific Arabic language classes, the Quran and religious education (Pretelli, 2011). Although the Libyans were forced to speak the Italian language and to co-exist and adopt the Italian culture, there prohibition from Italian schools meant they did not have full access to education (Pretelli, 2011; Powell, 2015). Consequently, the Libyans refused to send their children to the Italian schools, rejected the Italian language as it represented colonisation and sent their children to learn the Quran and Arabic in the Kuttabs (Pretelli, 2011; Powell, 2015).

Banning the Arabic language and forcing the Libyans to speak Italian appears to have further encouraged negative attitudes among the Libyans towards foreign languages and cultures and contributed to the deterioration of ELT and other foreign languages in modern Libya. In addition, the Libyan children returned to the Kuttabs where they received education through the Quranic method, which appears to have gained more popularity among the Libyan teachers and so reinforced this way of learning and teaching once again.

After nearly forty years, the Allies and a Libyan army led by King Idris Sanusi managed to defeat Italy in Libya during World War II. This was a period of fundamental changes and development in all sectors in Libya, including in the education system, which I present in the next section.

The Education System during the Monarchy Rule 1949-1969

In addition to the other political, social and economic challenges that faced the newly born country, Metz (1989) reports that the Libyan education system at this period was challenged by a limited curriculum, a lack of qualified Libyan teachers, and rote learning pedagogy (see Appendix One). It was also reported that there were only 14 Libyans with university degrees and so the Libyan government sought help from Egypt to provide teachers and textbooks for schools and universities (Farley, 1971). However, the discovery of large oil revenues in 1950 and the aid provided from the USA and Britain helped the Libyan government to build schools in most cities and towns and two universities in the two major cities of Benghazi and Tripoli. This provided access for all Libyans to basic, secondary and higher education for the first time in their history (Reich, 1990). But according to the first official UN commissioner report on Libya after independence in 1951, it was estimated that 81.1% of the Libyan population were illiterate with the number of targeted students who would need to receive education exceeding 100.000 (Otman and Karlberg, 2007).

Although the Libyan education system during this period saw massive development and change, the educational policy which emphasised the Libyan and Arab cultures appears to have hindered an appropriate development of English Language Teaching (ELT) material and methodologies (Orafi and Borg, 2009; Soliman, 2013; Najeeb, 2013). In other words, the Libyan government planned to introduce foreign languages but, at the same time, to maintain the Libyan language and culture by developing an educational policy that reinforced the Arab culture (The Libyan Ministry of Education, 1966). I discuss ELT and

language policy in more depth in Section 2.4 below, but it has been important to note these historical moments in educational policy and ELT in Libya.

Despite the government efforts to reform and develop a holistic approach to education, the Libyan education system did not flourish until the Revolution of the 1st of September 1969 when major changes were undertaken, and many problems were resolved as I explain below.

The Education System during the Gadhafi Regime 1969-2011

During this period (see Appendix One), the education system was based on Gadhafi's Third Universal Theory in which he attempted to develop alternative accounts of capitalism and communism based on nationalism and religious beliefs and this laid the foundation for Libya's political and education system (Metz, 1989). Bruce (2015) explained that to Gadhafi, nationalism is:

the natural product of cultural and racial diversity of the world and thus both a necessary and productive force; Gadhafi also argued for the centrality of Islam to religion and the Koran to Islam, arguing that Islam meant that a belief in God as embodied in all religions that anyone who believed in God and his apostles was a Muslim (p. 55).

Based on Gadhafi's views, the Libyan Ministry of Education developed an educational policy (see Appendix Two) which stated that learning is free and compulsory for all Libyans through the institutions of public education, participatory and open education, continuing education, distance learning. To ensure equality, this educational policy emphasised that education should provide opportunities to all regardless of their gender or age in order to encourage social and cultural enrichment and engagement (The Ministry of Education, 2008).

Formal education in Libya is free from primary until undergraduate level, and it starts at the age of six and includes five stages: kindergarten, basic primary education, secondary education, higher education and advanced studies (Metz, 1989; Zarrouh *et al.*, 2001). Although the Gadhafi regime developed a more sophisticated approach towards education policy and structure that required facilities and resources to achieve successful outcomes such as qualified and skilful people and a solid infrastructure which Libya, being a nascent country, did not have at that time (International Monetary Fund, 2012). Influenced by the teaching and learning of the Quran in the Kuttabs and inspired by the nationalists, Gadhafi

proposed an education system based on the Arab and Libyan culture and the teachings of the Quran (Gheblawi, 2011).

In addition, once he took power, Gadhafi sought to establish strong relations and unity with neighbouring Arab countries and he adopted hostile views against Europe and the USA (Blanchard, 2012). As I shall explain in Section 2.4 below, Gadhafi's educational policy and views on Western cultures, and America especially, appear to have had a severe negative impact on the quality of ELT teaching and learning in Libya and this impact continues until the present day. When Gadhafi had good relations with the West and America, he allowed foreign languages to be taught at schools and spoken by the Libyan public. However, when he was sanctioned or threatened by the international community, he banned foreign languages and media and all materials printed in foreign languages such as literature or papers (Otman and Karlberg, 2007; Vandewalle, 2012). The constant changes and instability of English 'in and out' appears to have influenced the ELT quality amongst the Libyan EFL teachers, including the LEFLUTs, and the language proficiency amongst the Libyan EFL students, including those who would go on to become teachers of English. Of direct relevance to my study, this instability also appears to have hindered the development of the ELT methodology and curriculum in Libya which is very evident in the current ELT situation in Libya (Orafi and Borg, 2009; Soliman, 2013; Najeeb, 2013).

When the Arab Spring toppled the two regimes in Tunisia and Egypt in 2011, the Libyan people took to the streets in massive numbers in demonstrations against the Gadhafi regime in what became known as the 17th of February Uprising, which I discuss next.

The Education System From 2011 to Present

Despite efforts from the international community to restore order and help the Libyans rebuild their country since the Uprising on the 17th of February 2011 (see appendix One), the political future and transition of Libya remains unclear and unstable (Blanchard, 2018). Several interim bodies have tried in vain to form a stable government, establish security and peace, reshape the country's economy, or guarantee justice and reconciliation for post-conflict Libya (Blanchard, 2018). In the current situation, reforming and developing a prosperous education system and adopting a more holistic approach toward curriculum design and development remains a major challenge for the Libyan educational system (International Monetary Fund, 2012). In writing a foreword to the 2014 edition of 'Discovering Businesses in Libya', Curtis (2015) quoted the Libyan Ambassador to the UK, Mahmud Nacua:

Libya offers opportunities for investment in various areas including infrastructure, education, human and institutional capacity building, healthcare, transportation and financial services. According to him, all of these areas are interrelated and connected to each other by the “lack of an appropriate education system and material (p. 10).

Before the Libyan uprising in 2011, the Libyan school curriculum, including English Language Teaching, which I discuss in detail in Section 2.5 below, was mainly based on Gadhafi’s views and philosophies of knowledge and learning. After the 17th of February Revolution, the Libyan Ministry of Education revised the school curriculum, deleted all content referring to Gadhafi - his thoughts or his regime - and added a course on nationalism (Fhelboom, 2013). Apart from revising and amending the curriculum, the Libyan education system - years of study and structure of schooling - is still based on the education system of Gadhafi’s regime (Aloreobi and Carey, 2017).

This section has presented a brief political history of Libya and discussed how various political, cultural and social developments influenced the Libyan education system and policy. I have shown how several education policies and systems were developed based on the ideologies and cultures of the various civilizations and rulers. In turn, this appears to have influenced not only the Libyan cultural identity but the language proficiency and attitudes among Libyans. In the next section, I will present and discuss the history and development of ELT in Libya during the above different periods.

2.3 History and Development of English Language Teaching (ELT) in Libya

2.3.1 Introduction

This section focuses on the history and development of English Language Teaching (ELT) in Libya. First, I introduce the idea of English as a global language and identify the current status of the English language so that when I discuss ELT in Libya, I can identify gaps or cultural influences between global English and the status of English in Libya. Then, I present and discuss the development of ELT in Libya from the 1940s to today, discussing different language policies and ELT material and briefly introducing teaching methodologies which I cover in more depth in Chapter Three. In addition, I discuss intercultural communicative competence and its impact on language learning in Libya. In the final section, I present a brief bibliography of the Libyan English as Foreign Language

University Teachers (LEFLUTs) focusing on their education and profession. This section aims to explain the status of ELT in Libya and to consider if the various language policies, ELT material and teaching methodologies developed in Libya align with the global status of English and the communicative use of language and to note where there are cultural and contextual boundaries.

2.3.2 Global English Language

A language becomes global when it plays a significant role that is recognised in many countries. According to Block and Cameron (2002), “whereas local languages and literacies tend to serve horizontal, contingent and solidarity functions, global English spans a wider range of contexts, and has universal applicability and resonance” (p. 107). In addition, Northrup (2013) states that “other languages continue to be vital locally, nationally, and regionally, but for the first time in history a single language has become the global lingua franca” (p. 1). According to Crystal (2012), the global language might be an official language of a country (a second language or L2) used as a medium of communication in government, law courts, the media and the education system or a priority in that country’s language policy even though it has no official status (so a foreign language) but may be used for teaching children and adults at schools and universities. In addition, global language becomes the language of communication, trade, technology and culture. As Fishman *et al.* (1996) puts it:

the world of large scale commerce, industry, technology, and banking, like the world of certain human sciences and professions, is an international world and it is linguistically dominated by English almost everywhere, regardless of how well established and well-protected local cultures, languages, and identities may otherwise be (p. 628).

Having recognised technology and the English language as key factors in globalisation, all countries have been encouraged to be adequately equipped with these two skills (Tsui and Tollefson, 2007). According to Heller (2010, p. 10), English language became a global language and gained a major impetus throughout the world because it “facilitates access to markets and services and aids in managing the flow of resources”. As a result, many countries in the Middle East and North Africa region (MENA), including Libya, have been encouraged to introduce English language into the curriculum at early stages as either a second language (ESL) used in all governmental institutions, including educational institutions, or as a foreign language (EFL) taught in their educational institutions like the

other subjects (Nunan, 2003; Kirkpatrick and Barnawi, 2017). In Libya English is an EFL not an ESL.

In the light of such a significant role for global English on the world's development and economy, Otman and Karlberg (2007) conclude that:

governments across the world, from Chile to China, from Malta to Malaysia, have in the last few years embarked on ambitious educational reforms which will integrate English more deeply into the curriculum. English will cease to be a foreign language for many, perhaps most, of the world's citizens as it becomes repositioned as a "basic skill", to be learned by primary school children alongside other 21st century skills in Information Technology (p.110).

As I have noted earlier that there appears to be historically negative attitudes towards English in Libya, the Libyan people have managed to preserve their own culture and language despite attempts by previous rulers to integrate Libyans into their culture and replace the Arabic language with foreign languages. As a result, Willimott and Clarke (1960) reported that "Libya has been for at least a decade one of the most Arab of the Arab states" (p.7). This is probably because the Libyans often, as noted above, have negative attitudes towards foreign languages and cultures due to the brutality of native people such as the Italians or to government policy such as Gadhafi's, which I return to in the next section.

2.3.3 The Development of English Language Teaching (ELT) from 1949 to 1986

After the independence of Libya and the discovery of oil and gas reserves in Libya in the early 1950s, English was introduced and given a high status in the agenda of the Libyan government to boost the economy and improve the education system (El-Haddad, 1997; Aloreobi and Carey, 2017). In doing so, the Libyan government developed a language policy that could achieve these goals and meet the demands of the country and its people. According to Tollefson (2002), language policy is concerned with the role of government and other powerful bodies in influencing the status of language use and language acquisition in a given context. Spolsky (2012) defines language policy as "an officially mandated set of rules for language use and form within a nation-state" (p. 3). These rules provide the bases for language education policy through translating them into legislation that produces a key text which becomes a "working document for politicians, teachers, the union and the bodies charged with responsibility for implementing the legislation" (Bowe *et al.*, 2017, p. 11).

Through the developed language policy, the Libyan government made Arabic the language of instruction in all governmental and private educational institutions and focused on preserving and developing the Libyan people's language and culture (The Ministry of Education, 1966). According to Golino (1970), this language policy aimed to:

preserve what is best of past traditions and get rid of what might hamper its national progress to pervade the curricula, syllabi and textbooks with Arab Libyan spirit (p. 350).

As the developed language policy emphasised Arabic language and culture, it appears to have neglected the intercultural dimensions of English language and hindered the development of appropriate English Language policy, pedagogy and material. I discuss intercultural competence in more detail in Section 2.5 below but, at the moment, it can be explained as the competence and skills that enable speakers from different cultures to communicate effectively with each other.

Based on the above language policy, various forms and types of Libyan English Language Teaching (ELT) materials were developed during this period. According to Tomlinson (2012), ELT material refers to anything that:

can be used to facilitate the learning of a language, including coursebooks, videos, graded readers, flash cards, games, websites and mobile phone interactions (143).

The Libyan ELT material developed in this period emphasised the Arab culture and focused on reading comprehension, vocabulary and grammar (Hashim, 1997) which reflects the practices of the popular structural syllabus which usually “selects, organises and presents its content in terms of structures and assumes that language consists of a finite set of rules which can be related together in different ways in order to convey messages or meanings” (Johnson, 2008, p. 219). However, as part of the new reforms of the late 1960s, English language was made the language of instruction for scientific courses in secondary school and university, and new ELT materials were provided for preparatory and secondary school students based on the Structural Syllabus defined above (Mohsen, 2014). Although this new material also emphasised the Libyan culture and language and focused on reading, vocabulary and grammar, it contained some references to the language's culture and its people (Mohsen, 2014). The Libyan Ministry of Education appears to have aimed to raise the cultural awareness of the Libyan learners and probably increase their motivation to learn English during this period.

However, as the Libyan ELT materials of this period focused on the improvement of the Libyan learners' reading skills, they appear to have neglected other aspects of language including communicative competence (Alrahy, 2008). Communicative competence (CC) is discussed in more depth in Chapter Three, but here it can be explained as the ability to communicate and negotiate meanings through interacting with others (Hymes, 1967). Secondly, the materials at this time seem to have reflected the teaching and learning views common amongst the Libyans and so they reinforced the teaching and learning principles of the Quranic Method discussed in Section 2.2 above (Al Rifai, 2010). I discuss these learning and teaching views in more depth in Chapter Three but, for example, these Libyan ELT materials appear to have adopted the views that language is a system of structures and rules, and learning is a transmission of information from the expert teacher to the learners who listen, repeat and obey what their teachers say.

Despite their drawbacks, these Libyan ELT materials continued to be used in Libya until the late 1980s when English language was dropped from schools following the political unrest between Libya and the West, including the USA. This was a major transition in the Libyan international relationships that appears to have affected not only the political and economic life of Libya but also the ELT situation for a long time to come and I discuss this period of ELT development in the next section below.

2.3.4 The Status of English Language Teaching (ELT) from 1986 to the Present

Due to tense diplomatic relations with the international community in the mid-1980s (see Appendix One), Gadhafi ordered his officials to ban the English language and any other foreign languages in the country. As a result, the Libyan Ministry of Education amended its language policy which led to the omission of all foreign languages, including the English language, from the education system (Otman and Karlberg, 2007). In addition, all foreign language departments in public and private institutions were closed and newspapers, magazines, or any other literature written in foreign languages were banned in public and private institutions (Otman & Karlberg, 2007). However, following the political reconciliation in Libyan and Western and American relations in the 1990s (see Appendix One), the Libyan government re-introduced English language into the education system, permitted materials written in foreign languages, and allowed Western media to broadcast everywhere in Libya (Falola *et al.*, 2012; Vandewalle, 2016). At this time, the Libyan

Ministry of Education developed a language policy through which new ELT material was developed and introduced into the Libyan schools.

As it was not easy to obtain official documents on the Libyan language policy or English Language Teaching (ELT) material at this period from the Libyan Ministry of Education, I will cite a document that I obtained from the publisher of the Libyan ELT material, Garnet. During my Masters degree in 2009/2010, I contacted and asked them for any relevant documents about the Libyan language policy and ELT material. They linked me to the authors who designed the material and provided me with a document outlining the aims of the language policy. Garnet Publishing is an independent British publisher based in Reading with over 40 years' experience; it has a special interest in Middle East and North African issues, including ELT material (Garnet Publishing, 2018). These aims have been developed by the publishers from the government language policy in order to meet the needs of the Libyan English as Foreign Language (EFL) students (Adrian-Vallance and Donno, 2009). Based on Garnet's document (see Appendix Three), there appear to be three areas from the government language policy that seem important for my study. First, there is the view of language as a linguistic system around which the language skills – listening, speaking, reading and writing – and the content of material need to be organised and sequenced. Secondly, there is a view about learning that mastering the linguistic system, vocabulary and grammar leads to successful learning and acquisition of the language. Thirdly, in terms of the language culture, the Libyan authorities seem to recognise English language as the most important language through which a new window of development (social, economic, industrial and cultural) can be opened to the entire world.

Based on the language policy above, Garnet developed new English language material for the Libyan preparatory and secondary schools (Zainol Abidin *et al.*, 2012; Mohsen, 2014). This new material, 'English for Libya', draws on a hybrid syllabus which combines and integrates the elements of Structural, Functional and Skills syllabi when using one of these syllabi alone would be irrelevant or inappropriate for the learners and their needs (White, 1988). Instead of the selection and organisation of language content in terms of structures, the Functional Syllabus selects and organises its content around specific purposes of communicative functions (Nunan, 1988). In contrast, a Skills-based Syllabus selects and organises its content around specific language skills and integrates linguistic competencies (pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, and discourse) together into generalized types of behaviour such as listening to spoken language for the main idea, writing well-formed paragraphs, or delivering effective lectures (Jordan, 1997). For example, the new material

focused on functions of language – asking for directions, writing an email – but at the same time provides a focus on language structures, especially those which have been used to achieve given language functions. These language skills and linguistic knowledge are two components of the content knowledge (CK) and general pedagogical knowledge (GPK) which I introduced in Chapter One and which I will discuss in more depth in Chapter Three.

Although ‘English for Libya’ material was more developed and appropriate to the learners in terms of the communicative aspects of language use, the Libyan EFL teachers were not able to deliver the material successfully through the assigned learner-centred methodology and support their learners to achieve the intended learning outcomes due to a lack of appropriate training (Najeeb, 2013; Aloreobi and Carey, 2017). As a result, the new ELT material was usually implemented through traditional methodologies such as the grammar translation method (GTM) and audiolingual method (ALM) introduced in the previous section and discussed in detail in Chapter Three (Latiwish, 2003; Najeeb, 2013; Abukhattala, 2016). Besides the lack of training, there was also a shortage of qualified Libyan EFL school teachers who could implement the material effectively (Latiwish, 2003; Najeeb, 2013; Abukhattala, 2016). Other factors that appear to have hindered a successful implementation of the new material and its objectives included lack of facilities and resources in most Libyan schools, such as laboratories, computers, smart boards and small group environments (Artemi and Ajit, 2009; Emhamed and Krishnan, 2011; Najeeb, 2013).

Although some Libyans managed to learn and speak English in one way or another, the continual changes of language policy and ELT materials and the prohibition of foreign languages in Libya at times appear to have set back Libya by at least two generations (Otman and Karlberg, 2007). Consequently, the standards of English language proficiency of most Libyans appears to have deteriorated dramatically, and the language competencies of Libyan students and the quality standards of Libyan schools have fallen noticeably (Aloreobi and Carey, 2017). As Libyan generations grew up in a society and an education system fuelled by Gadhafi’s views and aggression towards America and the West, Libyans appear to have developed a sense of resistance and hatred towards foreign languages, including English. As a result, most Libyan students are still reported to have a low level of motivation and growing negative attitudes towards English language which could be one of the main challenges to the development of ELT situation in Libya today (Youssef, 2012).

The previous section offers a possible explanation for the relative neglect of attention to intercultural communication and communicative aspects of English Language Teaching (ELT) or global English in Libyan language policy and ELT materials. Because of the focus on the Arabic language and culture, and politically motivated negative attitudes towards English language speakers, Libyan ELT has not attended to communicative aspects of language, and problems in implementing the hybrid syllabus, may also have led to the development of ineffective material and students' low motivation. In the final ELT section below, I focus on intercultural communicative competence and relate it to the Libyan context.

2.3.5 Intercultural Communicative Competence

Byram (1997) defines Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC) as an individual's ability to communicate and interact across cultural boundaries (p.7). ICC aims to develop not only the language learners' linguistic competence (speaking/writing) but also their ability to effectively interact and communicate meanings with people of different social identities (Byram *et al.*, 2002). Clouet (2013) also elaborates ICC as the speaker's ability to relate his/her own culture to other foreign speakers' culture, to be aware and sensitive to cultural boundaries, to apply different communicative strategies with speakers from foreign cultures, to be a mediator between his/her own culture and the foreign culture, and to deal effectively with intercultural misunderstanding and conflicts. So ICC should be an important component of the ELT material and methodology as it appears to be a key factor for effective and successful language teaching and learning, as I will show in the next paragraphs.

Libyan English as Foreign Language (EFL) teachers, as well as students, appear to focus on their English language material (ELT) material as a school subject that they must cover like other subjects regardless of the students' achievements and actual communicative development. This approach towards the ELT material appears to be guided by the lack of adequate ICC in the Libyan language policy as represented in the ELT material and methodology for the past five decades or so as I have noted. If ICC has been addressed more appropriately, it may have helped Libyan EFL learners to realise or at least to gain some understanding of the cultural relevance of English and it might have encouraged them to learn English more effectively. According to Stainer (1971), ICC provides a reason for language learners to study the foreign language and culture and facilitates a meaningful acquisition of the foreign language. In addition, ICC may help language learners to relate

abstract aspects of language, including its linguistic system (sound/forms), to concrete aspects of language culture such as people and places and they then might have considered the ELT material's characters as real people (Chastain, 1971). As motivation is acknowledged as a key factor in language learning (Gardner, 1972), ICC may increase the language learners' curiosity and motivation to know about others' language and culture and it can help to develop positive attitudes among language learners towards the target language and its people and culture (Genc and Bada, 2005).

When people become bound to their own culture and reject others, they may develop different views about the world and face difficulty understanding or accepting people with other views and cultures and this might be due to a lack of ICC. The language learner, education system, language policy or the society might be the sources for being bound only to one particular culture or identity. As highlighted by Kramsch and Widdowson (1998):

people who identify themselves as members of a social group acquire common ways of viewing the world through their interactions with other members of the same group. These views are reinforced through institutions like the family, the school, the workplace, the church, the government, and other sites of socialization through their lives. (p.6).

In the case of the Libyan context, as previous Libyan language policies and education systems (1940s-2000s) appear to have often reinforced the Arab and Libyan culture and isolated language from its cultural context, the Libyan EFL learners seem to have studied only their own culture presented through English as a foreign language and they have not been given opportunities to identify intercultural boundaries and dimensions of the target language or to see English as a global language. This may have encouraged Libyan EFL learners to become bound to their own culture and to reject, at least not to think important, other foreign languages and cultures, including English, despite the development of language policy in late 2000s that aimed to increase the learners' ICC.

2.4 Section Summary

In the Libyan context, the educational policy in general and language policy specifically have always been influenced by the political, social and cultural situations under the power of various rulers. According to Tollefson (2002), language policy plays a key role in managing social and political conflict since it can be employed by policy makers and authorities to “create, sustain or resolve conflict” (p. 5). For example, during the Ottomans, the language policy in Libya was influenced by the view that Arabic was the language of

the Holy Quran and should be the only language taught and spoken in the country. Then, as part of the Turkish secular reforms, the language policy was amended, and the Turkish language was made the official language with the French language taught in schools and spoken by the public. Although they allowed the teaching and learning of the Arabic language and the Holy Quran, when the Italians conquered Libya they prohibited both Arabic and Turkish languages and made Italian language the official language. During the Monarchy, Arabic was again made the official language of the country because it is the language of the Holy Quran, but the English and French languages were also taught in the Libyan schools and spoken by the public. And when Gadhafi took power, Arabic was the official language, but English was taught in all Libyan educational institutions and spoken by the public. However, when Gadhafi had tense relations with the West, he banned all foreign languages, including English, from being taught or spoken by the public and he prohibited all literature written in foreign languages. This constant change and instability in the language policy and 'English-in' and 'English-out' have surely hindered the development of appropriate and effective English Language Teaching (ELT) material and methodologies for the last five decades. In addition, banning the English language in Libya also appears to have isolated the country and allowed, and even encouraged, negative attitudes to develop towards the English language and its people.

Since this study aims to provide CPD material for the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs), it seemed very important to examine the Libyan language policy and to suggest its impact on the teaching and learning of the English language. First, it represents the policy on which the English as Foreign Language (EFL) material that the LEFLUTs teach and learn is based and demonstrates the teaching and learning cultures through which the LEFLUTs have received their education and learned English. In addition, the LEFLUTs received their ELT training based on this policy, and when they went to the universities to teach, it was this policy which guided their ELT teaching and learning.

Having outlined the Libyan education system and ELT situation, in the next section, I will describe the research population, the LEFLUTs, through a brief bibliography on their education, profession and development.

2.5 The Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs)

On completing secondary school, and before they become school teachers, the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) study English literature and applied linguistics at several English departments established in most Libyan Higher Education Institutions (HEIs). In their three-year secondary school, the LEFLUTs study general English for three years. When they finish secondary school, the LEFLUTs may study at English departments if they pass a placement test on reading, writing, grammar, vocabulary, listening and speaking. If there is a high number of enrolments, then the department chooses the students with the highest mark scored across all the above five skills. Those who pass the placement test study English literature and applied linguistics for four years and cover various courses as presented in Table One below.

	First Year	Second Year	Third Year	Fourth Year
1	Reading (I)	Reading (II)	Reading (III)	Reading (IV)
2	Writing (I)	Writing (II)	Writing (III)	Writing (IV)
3	Listening (I)	Listening (II)		
4	Speaking (I)	Speaking (II)	Speaking (III)	Speaking (IV)
5	Grammar (I)	Grammar (II)	Grammar (III)	Grammar (IV)
6	Linguistics	Phonology	Semantics	Pragmatics
7	Phonetics	Morphology	Syntax	
8	Literature	Assignment (I)	Drama	Poetry
9	French (I)	French (II)	Novel	Prose
10	Computer Studies	Assignment (II)	Assignment (III)	
11	Islamic Studies	Psychology	Translation (I)	Translation (II)
12	Arabic Studies (I)	Arabic Studies (II)	Research Methods	Research Project
13		History		

Table 1- Academic Subjects for each Academic Year of the English Department

As the above table shows, the English departments focus on the content knowledge of students without direct reference or attention to pedagogy and their teaching reflects the common views among Libyans about language and learning - language is a system and skills and learning is the mastery of this system (Latiwish, 2003; Alrahwy, 2008; Al Rifai, 2010; Soliman, 2013).

On successful completion and graduation from the English departments, most of the graduates become English as Foreign Language (EFL) school teachers. However, those who obtain the highest overall grade may become assistant teachers (ATs) in universities if they pass a test in which all outstanding graduates from the previous three to six years participate. This is also a placement test, but the level here is more advanced than the placement test to study in the English department. Successful ATs would be contracted with the following responsibilities: to assist in delivering lectures, research projects, organise timetables, set exams, or locate lecture rooms. In addition, these ATs may be granted scholarships to study Masters and PhD degrees in the U.S, UK or any other English-speaking country. When the ATs finish their studies and obtain their degrees, they come back to the English departments where they start teaching and become LEFLUTs. Besides teaching the courses presented in Table One above and the supervision of research projects, these LEFLUTs may also teach general English in other departments where they become associate lecturers.

The above account indicates that LEFLUTs often start teaching without receiving any INSET or pre-service training and they teach, almost inevitably, based on their own teaching and learning experiences. I discuss teacher training in more depth in Chapter Four but, despite the lack of training, the LEFLUTs seem to manage even if they practise teaching based only on their own approaches and paths to professional development (PD). For example, Bukhatowa *et al.* (2008) and Kenan (2009) reported that the LEFLUTs face many challenges to develop their knowledge and improve the teaching including a lack of financial resources, facilities, training, teaching in large classes and with cultural barriers. In addition, Kenan *et al.* (2011) and Tamtam *et al.* (2011) found that most of the LEFLUTs face the obstacles of high workloads, a lack of training and motivation, a lack of access to modern technology including the internet, cultural barriers and a dependence on teacher-centred methodologies. Overall, it appears that the main obstacle facing the LEFLUTs is a lack of supportive training.

Based on their bibliography, there appear to be potential opportunities to provide appropriate CPD activities for the LEFLUTs to help them to develop their knowledge, improve their practice and continue learning through more systematic and structured approaches than are available to them at the moment and I detail CPD models and teacher training in Libya in Chapter Four.

2.6 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, I presented and discussed the history and development of the Libyan education system and English language material (ELT) including language policy. In addition, I presented and discussed a brief bibliography of the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) focusing on their educational and professional backgrounds, qualifications, professional development and practicum. This Chapter suggests that the Libyan education system and language policy have been influenced by various cultures, beliefs and ideologies that appear to have developed negative attitudes among the Libyans towards the English language and culture and led to the instability ineffectiveness of curriculum and pedagogy. In addition, I have suggested that the LEFLUTs, inevitably, have also been influenced by these policies, materials and pedagogies and that these may all have had a negative impact on their education.

Exploring the Libyan context in this chapter was a crucial part of this research as it sets the scene in which the LEFLUTs learn and perform teaching and in which their continuing professional development (CPD) material is going to be implemented. The next Chapter focuses on some key learning and teaching theories of ELT, explores common learning and teaching views in the Libyan context and amongst LEFLUTs and it considers a language teacher knowledge-base.

Chapter 3 Theories of Language Learning, Language Teaching and Teacher Knowledge Base

This chapter explores and discusses some key learning and teaching theories and the language teacher knowledge base (TKB). First, this chapter explores some language learning theories and relates them to the common views of learning in Libya and amongst Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs). Then it shows how these learning principles are translated into classroom practices and discusses various teaching methodologies and approaches. In the final section, I focus on the language teacher knowledge base (TKB) and explore its components which include various language learning and teaching knowledge and skills. As this study aims to provide CPD material for the LEFLUTs, this survey of relevant literature on language learning and teaching and the teacher knowledge base was conducted to deepen my understanding of the LEFLUTs' teaching and learning practices and TKB and help to provide appropriate support for the LEFLUTs through appropriate principles and focused on appropriate theories and practices.

3.1 Theories of Language Learning

The previous chapter suggested that the language policy and English Language Teaching (ELT) material in Libya are developed in accordance with various views and understandings of learning and teaching and so I develop this here by considering some major learning theories: structuralism/behaviourism, cognitivism and constructivism. In doing so, I will discuss how these theories view language and learning and indicate their implications for the English language classroom. This section is intended to relate different language learning practices and views currently adopted in Libya, including by the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs), to broader theories in order to better understand and eventually to make recommendations for the LEFLUTs' knowledge base and practice.

3.1.1 Structural and Behavioural Linguistics

Structural linguistics is a theory or method of language study and language learning which was inspired by the work of a Swiss linguist called Ferdinand de Saussure (1857-1913) who described the structure of our social and cultural life as a system of signs (cited in

Sanders 2004). In his work, 'Course de Linguistique Generale', de Saussure described language as:

a socially shared, psychologically real system of signs, each consisting of the arbitrary conjunction of an abstract concept and acoustic image (cited in Godel, 1957, p. 182).

With only publicly observable responses, structural linguists focused on describing human languages and identifying the structural characteristics of those languages assuming that diverse variations existed among languages (Brown, 2007). Structural linguists realised that if human verbal or non-verbal actions carried meanings, then these meanings are possibly made only through an underlying system of distinctions and conventions (Rivkin and Ryan, 2004). To provide a systematic understanding and analysis of the nature of this language system, Saussure distinguished between *la langue* and *la parole* (Sampson, 1980). *La langue* refers to the potential language system of interpersonal rules and norms that exist in the mind of human beings while *la parole* is the actual manifestation of this linguistic system into actual human language use (Culler, 2002). The structuralists argue that learning language is about learning its system through mastery and memory.

Sometime after de Saussure's initial work and to study and compare the system of languages, linguists developed contrastive analysis or contrastive studies to analyse similarities and differences between languages. According to Fisiak (1981), contrastive analysis, for short CA, refers to:

a subdiscipline of linguistics concerned with the comparison of two or more languages or subsystems of languages in order to determine both differences and similarities between them (p. 1).

CA assumes that foreign or second language learners' problems or difficulties in learning the target language are caused by a conflict of different language systems between their first language and the target language, such as between grammatical or phonological systems (Richards and Rodgers, 2014). Thus, CA would predict potential problems of first language (L1) interference and address them through English Language Teaching (ELT) material organised around these potential L1 interferences and difficulties that the second language (L2) learners might encounter in the future (Lems *et al.*, 2009). This principle of L1 interference and potential difficulties become the basis of audiolingual methodology and its material, which I introduced in Chapter One and discuss in more depth in Section 3.2. For example, the language teacher would expect that Arab learners of English will

have a problem with the three sounds /æ/ as in *sat*, /e/ as in *set* and /ɪ/ as in *sit* which are represented in Arabic language as /æ/ *alif* (الف) as in *qala* (قال), /e/ *fatt-hah* (فتحة) as in *kana* (كان) and /ɪ/ *kass-rah* (كسرة) as in *rijal* (رجال). The teacher might focus on these sounds during, say, a whole week until the students could get these right (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). In doing so, the teacher would write words such as the above that represent these sounds in both English and Arabic and indicate the differences and similarities between the two systems to the learners.

The structuralists' views encouraged several behavioural psychologists to propose a different view about language based on other non-verbal human behaviours. According to Skinner (1974), an American psychologist, "habit formation was a structuralist principle: to acquire a habit was merely to become accustomed to behaving in a given way" (p. 71). Based on laboratory experiments on animal behaviour, Skinner described language as a system of verbal operants and proposed a behavioural approach to language study based on a general learning theory of operant conditioning (Brown, 2007, p. 22). Operant conditioning is an approach described by Reynolds (1968) as:

a process in which the frequency of occurrence of a bit of behaviour (utterance/sentence) is modified by the consequences of the behaviour (positive/negative). It consists of a series of assumptions about behaviour and its environment and is concerned with the relationship between the behaviour of organisms (human being) and their environment (p 1).

According to this operant conditioning approach, humans learn a language (response/operant) with or without observable stimuli (environment), and that language is learned when positive verbal or non-verbal responses are reinforced and negative verbal or non-verbal behaviours are punished (Brown, 2007, p. 23). A positive reinforcement is a post-learning event that increases the probability of the learning that preceded that reinforcement. Negative reinforcement is also a post-learning event but instead of increasing the probability of the preceding learning, it decreases it (Brown, 2007). For example, in teaching, language teachers, following this theory, either praise (positive reinforcer) a learning point and strengthen and increase the likelihood of that learning, or frown and reject (negative reinforcer) that learning so reducing its likely re-occurrence in the future and encouraging students to produce a correct response instead (Gage, 2009).

When applied in the ELT classroom, a structuralist/behaviourist teacher would focus on the mastery of the language system defined in terms of discrete units of phonological units (phonemes), grammatical units (clauses, phrases, sentences), grammatical operations

(adding, shifting, joining or transforming elements) and lexical items (function words and structure words) (Richards and Rodgers, 1986). The teacher would present a language point, explain and repeat it with the students, whereas the students would just listen to the teacher, write down structures and examples and drill and memorise these language points (rote learning) (Brown, 2000; Larsen-Freeman, 2000). When these students practise and drill vocabulary and structures in front of the teacher or use them in the future, the teacher either reinforces the students' use of these structures by various positive reinforcements such as rewards and praises or rejects the produced language by negative reinforcements (Brown, 2007). Based on the structuralists' and behaviourists' views and practices, the teacher often becomes a controller and the only knower and doer who transmits information to the students who become passive listeners and repeaters of the memorised and transmitted knowledge (Harden and Crosby, 2000; Collins and O'Brien, 2003). These principles are the bases for several approaches to English Language Teaching (ELT) and learning including the audiolingual method, which I discuss in detail in the next section. So, too, they overlap with aspects of the Quranic teaching and learning I outlined earlier. I develop applications of the structuralists and behaviourists' views of language classrooms in more depth in Section 3.2 below.

The Behaviourists were criticised by cognitivists who argued for an alternative approach that could account for the cognitive processes underlying language and learning. According to Brown (2007), both structuralists and behaviourists have suggested a linguistic principle that focuses on only explicitly observable human acts but ignores otherwise the mind and the unobservable underlying principles of language. This criticism led to cognitivism which has its own views of language and learning views and which I present in the next section.

3.1.2 Cognitivism

Unlike behaviourists, cognitivists are concerned with all of the various mental (cognitive) processes such as perception, thinking, knowledge representation and memory that relate to human information processing and problem-solving as represented in the mainstream of thinking in both psychology and education (Shuell, 1986). Lakoff (1990), a pioneering cognitive linguist, argued that a key premise of cognitive theory is its generalisation commitment to the characterisation and identification of the underlying general principles that govern all aspects of human language. The key principle of this general commitment comes from Noam Chomsky, an American linguist, who proposed a theory of Universal

Generative Grammar (UGG). Goldsmith and Huck (1995) explain that Chomsky's UGG is interested not only in the description of language system but also in the development of a level of language study that can:

account for the ability to learn a language and ascribe a rather complex built-in structure to the organism. That is, the language acquisition device will have complex properties beyond the ability to match, generalise, abstract, and categorise items in the simple ways that are usually considered to be available to the organism (p. 23).

On describing the underlying principles of language system, Chomsky proposed a fundamental distinction between competence (langue) and performance (parole). Chomsky (1965) describes competence as the unobservable ability to do something through a human's actual knowledge of language whereas performance refers to the observable manifestation of that abstract knowledge realised through a human's actual use of the language in, for example, speaking or reading. According to Croft and Cruse (2004), the cognitivists view language as an innate faculty separate from non-linguistic cognitive abilities; it is "the real-time perception and production of temporal sequence of discrete, structured symbolic units" (p. 4). In addition, Chomsky (1965) proposes that humans are born with a language acquisition device (LAD) which enables them to achieve the complicated task of language learning without necessarily the provision of the sort of complex structures developed by the structuralists or behaviourists. In addition to their view of language, Langley and Simon (1981) state that cognitivists view learning as:

any process that modifies a system so as to improve, more or less irreversibly, its subsequent performance of the same task or of tasks drawn from the same population (p. 367).

In the language classroom, cognitivism suggests that material and content be developed around tasks that are sequenced to approximate the second language (L2) learners' real life tasks in order to enable L2 learners to accomplish the required performance objectives (Robinson, 2005). I discuss tasks in more depth in Section 3.2 below, but here a task can be understood as any classroom activity designed to help students learn the language. In addition, cognitive learning implies that various mental processes and problem solving tasks can be manipulated to stimulate the learners' existing L2 knowledge and push them beyond the demands of the tasks to extend their L2 repertoire (Robinson, 2005).

Despite his very significant contribution to language study, Chomsky's views have been criticised by many sociolinguists who argued that Chomsky's view of language, as merely grammatical competence and performance, abstracts language from important

sociocultural factors. For example, Hymes (1967) describes language as a means for communication of meaning that is developed through communicative competence. I discuss communicative competence in more depth in Section 3.2.4 but at the moment it can be explained as an individual's ability to express meanings, understand messages and negotiate meanings effectively while using a language (Hymes, 1967). In addition, Hymes (1972) rejected Chomsky's division and restriction of human language into competence and performance suggesting this had no or little reference to meaning and the communicative nature of language as it portrayed people as individuals, abstract and isolated entities unconnected to a social world (p. 272). Similarly Halliday (1978), who describes language as a social reality of functions and who proposed a functional view of language, criticised Chomsky's cognitive view for neglecting the functional aspect of language. Halliday (1978) criticised Chomsky's view that the primary unit of linguistic analysis is the sentence, suggesting that, instead, language consists of a text or discourse of various interpersonal exchanges of meaning between individuals within a social context. Such linguists argued that language is acquired through language use and cannot be considered a system to be learned with an innate faculty.

The above criticisms shifted the study of language from the study of the non-observable underlying processes of language to the social and communicative aspect of language. This is summed up in constructivism to which I turn next.

3.1.3 Constructivism

Constructivism has become an umbrella term for a multiplicity of theories about knowledge, knowing and teaching that emerged due to criticism of the structuralists, behaviourists and cognitivists' views about knowledge and knowing (Cunningham and Duffy, 1996; Hausfather, 2001). Viewed as a philosophy, epistemology and as a theory of communication, constructivism became a dominant paradigm that shifted the fields of English Language Teaching (ELT) and teacher education away from traditional models of teaching and learning toward more communicative models based on cognitive and sociocultural processes (Kaufman, 2004). In this section, I will discuss two major trends of constructivism: Piaget's approach to constructivism (the cognitive approach) and Vygotsky's approach to constructivism (the sociocultural approach) as cited in Cobb (1994), Richardson (1997), Fosnot (2005), and Brown (2007). Although these cognitive and sociocultural approaches represent two distinct philosophies of constructivism, both are complimentary and consider construction of knowledge a fundamental principle of

learning. In addition, while both Piaget and Vygotsky talk about children's development and human learning in general, I will draw parallels between first and second language learning. In doing so, I will explain the application of various aspects of human and child learning to second language classroom learning.

3.1.3.1 Piagetian Constructivism

Piaget (1972), a Swiss psychologist and epistemologist (1896-1980), argues that the development of human knowledge can be explained in terms of a biological analysis of the law of nature. According to him, a child's cognition develops as the result of actively building systems of meanings and understandings about the world through experiences and activities (cited in Vadeboncoeur, 1997). Knowledge, which Piaget called meanings and understandings, is constructed by individuals using language and it is abstracted from the individuals' previous experiences and shaped by the social interaction and nature of language (cited in Vadeboncoeur, 1997, p. 24). For Piaget, learning is "a development process that involves change, self-generation, and construction, each building on prior learning experiences" (cited in Kaufman, 2004, p. 304). Accordingly, new learning is *assimilated* and integrated into existing or developing schema through the process of *accommodation* leading to *equilibrium* which is the new learning, understanding and cognitive development (Kaufman, 2004). For example, in *assimilation* a second language (L2) learner attempts to integrate new information such as irregular forms of verbs into his/her existing knowledge base that contains only regular forms. Then, the L2 learner adjusts his/her his knowledge to allow irregular forms to be processed and learned or accommodated (*accommodation*). This suggests that assimilation and accommodation involve a continuous process of interaction between the L2 learner and the foreign language. Finally, when the L2 learner assimilates and accommodates these irregular forms, the L2 learner starts using irregular forms effectively and appropriately and these forms become equilibrated. The process of equilibration (successful interaction between the L2 learner and knowledge) and disequilibration (failure to assimilate and accommodate new knowledge) reflects a typical process of cognitive development which challenges L2 learners and pushes them beyond their existing knowledge (Duffy and Cunningham, 1996). Learning, in this regard, is an individual constructive activity of making sense of the surrounding world that occurs and develops when individuals are challenged to resolve a conflict (disequilibration/ perturbation/ puzzlement) or to deal with unexpected experiences (Cunningham and Duffy, 1996).

In the language classroom, Cunningham and Duffy (1996) explain that Piaget's concept of conflict suggests that the teacher's role, as well as other students, is to provide a source of a conflict, perturbation or puzzlement that becomes a stimulus for language learning to occur and develop. Thus, the teacher would be a facilitator who provides the language learners with an appropriate stimulus or a meaningful input rather than a controller or transmitter of knowledge, which is usually common in structuralist and behaviourist classrooms. In addition, the learners become active participants capable of formulating their own learning rather than passive listeners and receivers of information (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). Finally, English Language Teaching (ELT) teachers are encouraged to create effective teaching and learning environments that support them and their learners to think, explore and construct their own learning allowing learners to become active participants in the selection of a challenging and motivating learning content (Gould, 2005). These principles became the bases of communicative language teaching which promotes L2 learning through learners' active involvement and interaction with communicative situations. I discuss communicative language teaching in detail in Section 3.2 below but these principles mean that L2 learners are often required to work in groups or pairs on activities that promote the communicative and interactive use of language (Littlewood, 1981).

Piaget's theory suggests that knowledge is constructed by individuals acting alone based on past experiences and present situations while the history of these individuals' social interaction and collaboration have no impact on the process of knowledge construction (Vadeboncoeur, 1997). This suggests that Piaget's views are based on individual approaches to learning and the development of knowledge (Johnson, 2009). These drawbacks of Piaget's cognitive theory led to the development of learning theory based on social interaction. This is a sociocultural constructivism theory which has its own principles which I present next.

3.1.3.2 Vygotskian Constructivism

Vygotsky (1986) defines the cognitive development of a child as an interactive process mediated by culture, context, language and social interaction that one which progresses through social interactions and relationships, and previous experiences. In addition, Vygotsky believes that knowledge is mediated by being situated in a social context from which human beings acquire various mediums, mediators and tools of thoughts and communications, including language (Vygotsky 1986). Based on this social aspect of

cognitive development, Vygotsky views language as a collaborative social activity through which members of the society interact with each other (Vygotsky 1986). Relatedly, Vygotsky views learning as a “dynamic social activity that is situated in physical and social contexts and distributed across persons, tools, and activities” (cited in Johnson 2006, p. 237). As a result, learners develop their knowledge and understanding as they move from a social dimension to a psychological one. As Vygotsky (1978) puts it:

any function in the child's cultural development appears twice or on two planes. First, it appears on the social plane, and then on the psychological plane. First, it appears between people as an interpsychological category, and then within the child as an intrapsychological category (p. 57).

This means that learners acquire knowledge through communicative activities and interaction with families, friends, or other learners and members of the society and then this knowledge is internalised and accommodated by the learner into their developing cognitive system. The process of knowledge internalisation and progression from one plane to the other occurs within a Zone of Proximal (or Potential) Development (ZPD) which Vygotsky (1978) describes as:

the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers (p. 86).

ZPD entails tasks that learners could not do alone but could do with, for instance, appropriate support from peers or teachers. In the language classroom, ZPD entails that language teachers create appropriate environments for interaction and effective learning through group and pair work activities, reduce their control over learning and promote their learners' autonomy. In this case, language teachers become participants and facilitators of learning who guide and monitor their students as they construct their learning rather than controllers, doers or transmitters of knowledge (Richards and Rodgers, 2014). In addition, ZPD suggests that learners require a rich variety of approaches and activities to relate previous experiences to new knowledge and to benefit from the teachers' assistance through relevant guidance and scaffolding that promotes effective learning (Kaufman, 2004). Scaffolding is a metaphor described by Wood *et al.* (1976) as:

the process that enables a child or novice to solve a problem, carry out a task or achieve a goal which would be beyond his unassisted efforts. This scaffolding consists essentially of the adult "controlling" those elements of the task that are initially beyond the learner's capacity, thus permitting him to concentrate upon and complete only those elements that are within his range of competence (p. 90).

Scaffolding assumes that when language teachers and students engage in collective activities, teachers and knowledgeable students together create supportive conditions through various communicative skills that enable lower level students to participate in interactive activities, improve their current skills and knowledge and increase the level of their competence (Donato, 1994). In addition, scaffolding suggests that, like parent-child communication, the language learners' errors and their struggles with learning encourage the teachers to adapt their dialogue and revise their scaffolding with a more accessible and comprehensible scaffold (Donato, 1994).

The above views suggest that conversation and its interlocutors play a key role in providing an effective environment for language learners through appropriate language input that fosters language learning. As a result, second language acquisition (SLA) research began to emphasise interaction to provide meaningful input for language learners (Swain, 2000). Originally, this idea of meaningful input came from Krashen's comprehensible input hypothesis which he describes as the "crucial and necessary ingredient of language input in which the focus is on the message and not the form" (Krashen, 1981, p. 9). His input hypothesis suggests that second language (L2) acquisition is caused by an input that is made comprehensible or meaningful to the L2 learners in various ways (Krashen, 1981). For example, Long (1985, 1996), proposed that one way input may become comprehensible is through interaction theory which assumes that modified interaction, the various modifications that parents, teachers, and native-speakers (NSs) employ to help others to understand their language, can transform conversation into comprehensible input (Long, 1985, 1996). According to Long (1985, 1996), this comprehensible input is gained through interactional modifications that provide opportunities for negotiation of meanings between NSs, non-native speakers (NNS) or NS-NNS. This negotiation of meanings is believed to facilitate L2 learning through interactive involvement with other NS users or NNS learners to understand and express meanings in the target language. As Long (1996) puts it:

negotiation for meaning, and especially negotiation work that triggers interactional adjustments by the NS or more competent interlocutor, facilitates acquisition because it connects input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways (p. 451-452).

In addition, Pica (1992) describes this negotiation of meanings as an interactive discourse in which L2 learners and their interlocutors phonologically, lexically, and morphosyntactically modify their language to overcome conversational breakdowns that

could hinder their communication (p. 200). Similarly, Ellis *et al.* (2001) describe this negotiation as those signals that “arise as a response to a communicative problem” (p. 414).

The concepts of negotiation of meanings encouraged SLA researchers to explore which classroom activities provide appropriate interactive environments to foster negotiation between L2 learners and they found that small group teaching activities best encouraged negotiation and increased the quality and quantity of meaningful input (Foster and Ohta, 2005). Long’s interaction theory meant that language teachers would need to transform the L2 material into a comprehensible input to the learners and make their language and instruction as meaningful as possible through various interactional adjustments and conversational modifications to overcome conversational difficulties. For example, L2 teachers would check, repeat, clarify or modify problematic language so that it becomes accessible and comprehensible input (Foster and Ohta, 2005). Problematic utterances occur during interaction due to communication breakdowns which are now seen not as something ‘bad’, as with the behaviourists, but rather as crucial triggers for language learning and change (Skehan, 1996). In addition to the use of conversation checks and phonological, lexical, and morphosyntactical modifications, L2 teachers could, in this approach, employ various teaching techniques and aids such as visuals and technology. When combined with scaffolding, Long’s hypothesis encourages L2 teachers to recognise their learners and make the language classroom a place where learners of diverse abilities, styles and strategies are accommodated and offered the opportunities to collaborate, interact and engage in meaningful interactive learning environment (Brown, 2007; Richards and Rodgers, 2014).

So far, the focus of SLA research has been only on the role of input and interaction, or more precisely negotiated meanings in language learning and transforming conversation into a comprehensible input. However, Swain and Lapkin (1995) argue that there appears to be no evidence that second language learning is achieved by comprehensible input through negotiation and that Krashen’s input hypothesis and Long’s interaction theory ignore other aspects of interaction that may have an influence on the development of L2 learners’ proficiency. As a result, Swain and Lapkin (1995) suggested that SLA research needed to focus not only on comprehensible input and negotiated meaning but also on output, that is the learners’ use of L2. Originally developed by Swain (1985) and Swain (1993), the output hypothesis assumes that the learners’ use of L2, output (writing/speaking), helps them to become aware of linguistic problems through external feedback (such as clarification or negotiation of meanings) or internal feedback (such as

the learners' own ability to monitor communication) and this pushes learners to modify their output (language use) (Swain and Lapkin, 1995, p. 372). According to Swain and Lapkin (1995), this output:

is one of the triggers for noticing...in producing the target language, learners may encounter a problem leading them to recognize what they do not know or know only partially. In other words, the activity of producing the target language may prompt second language learners to consciously recognize some of their linguistic problems, it may bring to their attention something they need to discover about their L2 (p. 373).

Swain (1995) considers output a fundamental element of language learning because it pushes L2 learners to process language learning more deeply than would input alone. The output hypothesis suggests that even without implicit or explicit interlocutors' feedback L2 learners may still be able to notice gaps in their knowledge while trying to use the language and when they encounter a problem (Swain and Lapkin, 1995, p. 373). According to Swain (1995), besides enhancing the L2 learners' fluency, output may help L2 learners to "notice gaps between what they want to say and what they can say, leading them to recognise what they do not know, or know only partially" (pp. 125-126). Noticing gaps may help L2 learners to identify their linguistic problems and encourage them to learn more about the L2 which in turn triggers cognitive processes that may generate new linguistic knowledge (Swain, 1995). In addition, output triggers L2 learning through "hypothesis testing", sometimes involving feedback and modification of the output, and helps L2 learners to test their linguistic knowledge and use of the target language (Swain, 1995, p. 127).

Like the comprehensible input and interaction theories, the output hypothesis suggests several implications for the L2 classroom. For example, Swain (1995) argues that the output hypothesis puts learners in control of their learning and encourages language teachers to provide opportunities for their learners to play more active roles in learning. In addition, the output hypothesis encourages language teachers to create effective speaking and writing activities that may stimulate language use (output) and trigger language acquisition (Swain 1995).

Based on the above structuralist, behaviourist, cognitivist and constructivist views about language and learning, various methods and approaches to L2 teaching and learning have been introduced. In the next section, I focus on some of these methodologies discussing their advantages and disadvantages and their relevance to the Libyan context.

3.2 Approaches of Language Teaching

As this study aims to identify the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers' (LEFLUTs) professional development (PD) needs and provide appropriate CPD material for them, it is necessary to survey common teaching methods and approaches and relate them to the LEFLUTs' practice. Therefore, I will next present and discuss a number of methods and approaches to L2 teaching and learning that the LEFLUTs may have experienced as learners and teachers: grammar translation, direct method, audiolingual method, communicative language teaching and task-based teaching.

3.2.1 Grammar Translation Method

Once called the Classical Method, the Grammar Translation Method (GTM), was initially used in teaching classical languages such as Latin and Greek (Chastain, 1988). The GTM focuses on helping students to read literature written in foreign languages and to become familiar with the grammar of their first language (L1) in order to improve their speaking and writing skills through the study of the target language grammar (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). It aims to conduct foreign language instruction in the students' L1 through a detailed analysis of its grammar rules, applying this knowledge to the task of translating sentences and reading texts from and into the target language (Brown, 2000). According to Larsen-Freeman (2000), the GTM draws on the following main theoretical principles. First, literary language is considered superior to spoken language. Second, learning means being able to read second language (L2) written literature having mastered L2 rules and vocabulary which is achieved by students translating reading texts from the L1 to the L2 and from the L2 to the L1 and it includes memorising grammar rules with examples and applying them to other situations. Third, reading and writing are at the centre of the GTM through which grammar and vocabulary are presented, and speaking and listening are considered less important. Fourth, the teacher is usually the doer and only knower of knowledge, and learners are usually passive listeners who follow the teacher's instruction. Fifth, the interaction is only one directional, that is most interaction is from teacher to students. Finally, getting the correct answers is key for successful learning, and evaluation is conducted through students' translation of texts from L1 to L2 or from L2 to L1 (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p. 19). There are obvious similarities here with the GTM and aspects of behaviourism outlined earlier.

The GTM is considered one of the most widely adopted methodologies experienced by most of the Libyan English as Foreign Language (EFL) school teachers and Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) who tend to believe that language learning is achieved through mastering its structure and memorising its vocabulary and rules as emphasised in the GTM (Latiwish, 2003; Al Rifai, 2010; Najeeb, 2013). First, the Kuttabs had once been the only place for most Libyan children to learn reading and writing the Arabic language and the Holy Quran through the Quranic Method (Vandewalle, 2012). As a result, this Quranic Method, which resembled the practices of the GTM in its focused reading, writing, vocabulary and rule learning through drilling, repetition and memorisation, appears to have become the basis for foreign language teaching and learning in Libyan (Latiwish, 2003; Najeeb, 2013). In addition, most of the Libyan EFL school teachers and Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers' (LEFLUTs) have themselves learned English language through the GTM (Latiwish, 2003). Thus, when the Libyan EFL school teachers and LEFLUTs teach at schools and universities, they seem to opt for the GTM. Finally, as most of the Libyan EFL school teachers and LEFLUTs have not received appropriate training on modern methodologies or the newly developed ELT material, they seem to find the GTM the easiest method to implement in their classrooms. Although the L1 can be very useful in teaching and learning L2, the reliance of many Libyan EFL school teachers and LEFLUTs on translation and an excessive use of Arabic in the classroom appears to have had negative impacts on Libyan EFL learners language proficiency (Soliman, 2013).

The focus of GTM on the development of language learners' grammatical and vocabulary knowledge appears to neglect the mental processes and the development of the language learners' competence (Krashen, 1982). Second, the GTM focuses on reading and writing and neglects listening and speaking skills which does not usually help students to improve their communicative competence in the target language (Brown, 1994). In addition, the GTM is usually described as a teacher-centred methodology which emphasises the teacher's role and neglects the role of the learners in constructing their learning (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). As a result, research on L1 acquisition led to the development of alternative approaches to L2 learning based on the principles of L1 acquisition. These alternative methodologies are known as natural approaches to language learning such as the Direct Method, which I present in the next section.

3.2.2 Direct Method

The Direct Method (DM), is a reformist theory offering a radical change in language teaching to overcome the drawbacks of the grammar translation method (GTM) discussed in the previous section. The DM was developed by Francois Gouin, a French linguist, based on a methodology informed by observation of children's L1 learning (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). Gouin's observations on L1 learning encouraged other linguists such as Sauveur to develop a method based on natural language learning through the use of intensive spoken interaction in the L2 (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). The practical principles of the DM include the exclusive use of the L2 to conduct classroom instruction, teaching everyday vocabulary and sentences only, building oral communication skills through question-and-answer exchanges between the teacher and students in small, intensive classes and teaching grammar inductively (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). Inductive grammar teaching means that students study examples of the target language grammatical structure or rule, discover general explanations for this structure and identify its function (Ellis, 2006). Other principles of the DM also include teaching concrete vocabulary through demonstration and objects and pictures and abstract vocabulary by the association of ideas, a focus on speech and listening comprehension and an emphasis on fluency (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, pp. 9-10).

Unlike the GTM, the DM provides a comprehensible input for exposure to the target language without translation (Howatt and Widdowson, 2004). In addition, through speaking and listening activities, the DM ideally develops the students' communicative skills and mental abilities through direct association and thinking in the target language (Patel and Jain, 2008). Moreover, in the DM the teachers become orchestrators directing the students, and the learners become active participants and, again ideally, partners in the learning process. Thus, the DM promotes interaction between the teachers and the students and vice versa (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). Despite these advantages, the DM was criticised for its focus on improving the learners' speaking fluency which often requires NSs or teachers with native-like fluency who can communicate fluently in the target language and provide opportunities for their learners to use the target language effectively. Second, the DM overemphasises the use of the L2 to explain language points and prohibits the use of the L1 even when the L1 could provide more effective explanations and make comprehension easier according to Richards and Rodgers (2001).

Suleiman (2003) claims that many English as Foreign Language (EFL) Arab school teachers refrain from adopting DM because it requires high language fluency which they do not usually have. Despite this, the DM has been adopted by some Libyan EFL school teachers as encouraged and recommended by the educational inspectors (Latiwish, 2003). However, Alrahwy (2008) and Soliman (2013) report that the widespread of GTM and the reliance of some Libyan teachers and students on translation appears to have hindered an appropriate implementation of the DM by many Libyan EFL teachers. In addition to the widespread of the GTM, the Libyan EFL school teachers often find in DM that their lack of the necessary English fluency makes them vulnerable to errors in front of their students (Orafi and Borg, 2009; Al Rifai, 2010).

At the beginning of the twentieth century, the use of the DM declined in both Europe and America, and most ELT teaching and learning contexts returned to forms of the GTM (Brown, 2007). In the mid twentieth century, another method was developed based on SLA research (Brown, 2007) and I explore this next.

3.2.3 Audiolingual Method

The need for a radical change in foreign language teaching and the rapid change and development of linguistics led to the development of the Audiolingual Method (ALM) based on the behaviourists' views, especially the work of Skinner on language and learning (Larsen-Freeman, 2000) as discussed above. Rivers (1966) summarised the main learning principles of the ALM as follows. First, language learning is considered a habit formation process in which language learners drill language patterns and memorise vocabulary, longer chunks of texts and dialogues in order to then use them in similar situations. Second, the spoken language is considered more important than and superior to the written language so spoken language is prioritised on the assumption that it will help language learners to develop their listening, reading and writing skills. Third, grammar is taught inductively rather than deductively (see Section 3.2.1) and so language structures or rules are presented to language learners first and then practised through various techniques and exercises (Ellis, 2006). Finally, language culture is key aspect of language learning whereby language learners master language in its linguistic and cultural context (Rivers 1966, cited in Richards and Rodgers 2001, p. 51). However, I have already noted that, in Libya, English was and is only rarely taught in its linguistic or cultural context.

The ALM became a popular foreign and second language teaching approach in America and Europe in the 1960s and was praised for being the first theory-based teaching method (Brown, 2000). As noted earlier in Section 3.1.1, some of the structuralists' and behaviourists' language and learning views, including those on language as a system and habit formation, became the basis for this ALM. ALM employed productive and meaningful drill routines which are still found in most communicative approaches today (Richards and Renandya, 2002). In the language classroom, the ALM suggests that the teacher presents the L2 target vocabulary and rules in a dialogue, and the learners repeat and memorise it. Then, the learners practise the dialogue as a whole class and then drill the rules and vocabulary in groups in order to form habits and make spontaneous response (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). The goal of this drilling and mechanical response is to encourage the students to respond quickly and spontaneously to similar situations and deduce new language when they engage in different situations based on their previous experience (Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

Besides the view that language is still best learned through translation, memorisation of vocabulary and mastery of rules, ELT in Libyan has also been influenced by the ALM principles, namely repetition, drilling and dialogue (Metz, 1989). According to Orafi and Borg (2009), some aspects of the ALM such as oral drilling, memorisation of vocabulary and reading aloud are very common among Libyan English as Foreign Language (EFL) school teachers. These Libyan teachers' reliance on the principles of the ALM, especially repetition, drilling and memorisation, appears to be still guided by the Quranic Method which shares some principles of the ALM (see Chapter Two). According to Alotaibi (2014) and Hamad (2004), *altikrar* or التكرار (repetition), *atatbeeg* or التطبيق (drilling) and *almonagashah* or المناقشة (dialogue) are basic aspects of the Quranic Method. Based on the principles of the Quranic Method, Libyan school EFL teachers and LEFLUTs seem to find the ALM easy to implement (Metz, 1989; Orafi and Borg, 2009). Having said this, the ALM is sometimes criticised for its failure to develop a long-term communicative proficiency and rejection of errors (Brown, 2007). In addition, the ALM has been criticised for regarding language as a structure of habits and learning as a mechanical process of habit formation through drilling and memory (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). Nonetheless, the ALM encouraged linguists and psychologists to focus on the mental processes involved in language learning and how these could be employed into a practical teaching method which led to the development of communicative language teaching and task-based language teaching, which I cover in the next two sections below (Brown 2007).

3.2.4 Communicative Language Teaching

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is based on the theoretical concept of “Communicative Competence” proposed by Dell Hymes in contrast to Chomsky’s linguistic theory about language (Savignon, 2008) and as noted earlier in this chapter. Unconvinced with Chomsky’s notion of mental language learning theory dislocated or separated from social and functional aspects of language, Hymes (1967) developed a theory of communicative competence (CC), which he defines as our ability to convey and interpret messages and negotiate meanings through interactive activities within a social context. More specifically, Savignon (2008) defines CC in language classrooms as:

the ability of classroom language learners to interact with other speakers, to make meaning, as distinct from their ability to recite dialogues or perform on discrete-point tests of grammatical knowledge (p. 3).

Canale and Swain (1980) proposed that CC consists of four components or constituents: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, strategic competence and discourse competence and as explained below. Canale and Swain (1980) proposed that CC consists of four components or constituents: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, strategic competence and discourse competence and as explained below. Grammatical competence includes knowledge of language system - morphology, phonology, syntax, semantics - and it is a key element of any communicative approach that aims to develop language speakers’ fluency (Canale and Swain, 1980). Sociolinguistic competence consists of sociocultural rules of use and rules of discourse both of which help language speakers to convey and interpret messages in the target language (Canale and Swain, 1980). Strategic competence refers to any verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that language speakers use to overcome a lack of performance or to help communicate despite insufficient competence (Canale and Swain, 1980). Finally, discourse competence involves the language speakers’ ability and mastery of the use of language forms and meanings to produce relevant spoken or written types of language or genres (Canale and Swain, 1980).

It was important to consider the above framework because these four competencies relate to teacher knowledge, which I discuss in Section 3.3 below, and to content knowledge which I introduced in Chapter One and also cover in more depth in Section 3.3 below.

Returning to CLT, Wilkins (1976) and Widdowson (1978) argue that in addition to grammar, communication requires students to employ structures to perform certain functions within their social context. The focus on the communicative aspect of language

and the development of CC led to the development of CLT which, according to Savignon (2008), focuses on:

the elaboration and implementation of programmes and methodologies that promote the development of functional language ability through learners' participation in communicative activities (p. 4).

CLT regards language as a system for the expression of meanings with the primary function of interaction and communication and this language system, which besides grammatical and structural features includes categories of functional and communicative messages, conveys its functional and communicative use (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 161). Richards and Rodgers (2001) summarised some implications for learning from the principles and practices of CLT with the first principle that learning is communication which is promoted through real communicative activities. A second principle is task-setting in which language used for carrying out meaningful tasks promotes learning. A final principle is meaningfulness of language which assumes that when language is meaningful to the learners, it supports and promotes learning (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 161).

Despite its advantages, being a learner-centred methodology with a focus on language use and function and an emphasis on the communicative competence of learners, CLT arguably requires native speaker (NS) teachers or teachers with near-NSs' competence to deliver it effectively. As a result, when the teachers' proficiency and communicative competence is low, CLT can be very difficult or even impossible to implement (Brown, 2007). Secondly and related to the above, CLT is criticised by some ELT teachers for being prejudiced in favour of NSs, demanding a wide range of uncontrolled interaction from the students and requiring the teachers to be able to respond to any and every classroom or learning problem that may occur (Harmer, 2010). Uncontrolled communication and language use, such as carrying out language instruction in the target language and insisting the students use English all of the time in the classroom might be too challenging and problematic for many EFL teachers (Abbott, 1987; Jordan, 1997). Finally, the move from an educational culture where rote-learning is the norm, as in Libya, to an educational culture based on CLT requires a massive change in society, the education system and the country's policy and may not be accepted by teachers and students (Anderson, 1993; Harmer, 2010).

When the Libyan Ministry of Education introduced the new reforms and developed a CLT curriculum in the 2000s (see Chapter Two), many Libyan English as Foreign Language (EFL) school teachers and Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) attempted to adopt the CLT approach but felt hindered by many obstacles (Latiwish, 2003). One obstacle was the prevalent Libyan EFL teachers' teaching and learning culture assumes that they are the only doers and knowers of knowledge who transmit information to the students who sit quietly, listen and obey their teachers. This learning culture is linked to the principles of the Quranic Method as I explained in Chapter Two and above. Second, large and mixed-gender classes also appear to have hindered the effective implementation of CLT especially with regard to group or pair work activities (Latiwish, 2003). Third, and very importantly for my study, LEFLUTs and Libyan EFL school teachers were required to adopt CLT without the provision of appropriate training to implement it effectively (Latiwish, 2003; Abukhattala, 2016; Aloreobi and Carey, 2017). Finally, the majority of the Libyan EFL school teachers failed, and felt unable, to implement the CLT strategies and relied on traditional approaches because they often lacked an appropriate level of communicative competence (Orafi and Borg, 2009; Al Rifai, 2010; Abukhattala, 2016).

Besides CLT, another approach proposed tasks to help language learners to develop their communicative competence. This is task-based language teaching, to which I turn next.

3.2.5 Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT)

Task-based language teaching, TBLT, is an approach that uses "tasks" as the main organizer of language material and instruction (Richards and Rodgers, 2001) and aims to develop the communicative competence (CC) of L2 learners through providing natural contexts to use the L2 and enough opportunities and a suitable environment for meaningful interaction through tasks (Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Ellis and Shintani, 2014). Long (1985) defines task as:

the hundred and one things people do in everyday life, at work, at play, and in between. Task are the things people will tell you they do if you ask them and they are not applied linguists (p. 89).

For Prabhu (1987), a task is:

an activity which required learners to arrive at an outcome from given information through some process of thought, and which allowed teachers to control and regulate that process (p. 24).

According to Nunan (1989b), although definitions imply that tasks involve communicative language use and focus on meanings rather than forms, these definitions have not differentiated between communicative tasks, or pedagogic tasks and other forms of tasks, such as social or everyday tasks. Accordingly, Nunan (1989b) identified and proposed a communicative task which he defines as:

a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehension, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather form (p. 10).

In addition, Willis (1996) and Bygate *et al.* (2001) argued that the definition of task will depend on the purpose of task and those who employ it and so they distinguished between tasks which can be classified as exercises, such as grammar exercises or practice activities, and tasks that are used to promote language use and achieve a particular. Thus, Willis (1996) describes tasks as any activities “where the target language is used by the learner for a communicative purpose (goal) in order to achieve an outcome” (p. 23). Bygate *et al.* (2001) add that a task is an activity that:

requires learners to use language, with the emphasis on meaning, to attain an objective, and which is chosen so that it is most likely to provide information for learners and teachers which will help them in their own learning (p. 9).

However, TBLT focuses not only on the development of the L2 learners’ fluency in the communicative process but also the development of L2 learners’ linguistic competence and interactional competence (Ellis and Shintani, 2014). As a result, Ellis (2003) and Nunan (2004) elaborated a definition that summarises the main principles of tasks and incorporates most aspects of CC. For them, a classroom task requires L2 learners to employ their linguistic competence to convey meaning through interaction in the target language and to focus on the improvement of their fluency and accuracy as the end goal (Ellis 2003 and Nunan 2004). The above argument around the type and function of tasks and the development of various definitions of task led to the development of today’s TBLT approach and syllabus.

Originally, TBLT was developed by Prabhu (1987), an Indian applied linguist, who concluded that although communicative language teaching (CLT) and Functional/Notional Syllabus contributed much to language teaching, CLT could not tackle the problem in his country that Indian learners could not learn structures through structurally-based language teaching. Prabhu (1987) found that these approaches failed to help the Indian learners to

produce correct sentences in situations outside the classroom even though they could do so inside the classroom and it did not ensure the Indian learners' sustainability of language competence. In other words, these methodologies failed to prepare the Indian language learners to achieve real life tasks and effective communication outside the classroom. Therefore, Prabhu (1987) undertook the Bangalore Experiment or the Communicational Teaching Project in which he designed a language teaching programme based on tasks rather than lists of language items and produced a task-based syllabus or procedural syllabus aiming to help Indian learners to be able to use the language effectively inside and outside the classroom for real communication.

According to Richards and Rodgers (2001), TBLT views language as a means of making meaning and draws on the structural, functional and interactional principles about language discussed in Section 3.1 above. TBLT employs language structures as a means of accomplishing communicative tasks and focuses on fluency rather than accuracy, as I will explain later in this section, and draws on Long's interaction hypothesis (see Section 3.1 above) that language is best learned through learners' interaction with each other while attempting to accomplish the task regardless of the language they use (Prabhu, 1987; Nunan, 1989b; Skehan, 1996; Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Ellis, 2003). The view of learning in TBLT is based on the general assumptions underlying CLT discussed above but, in addition, TBLT views learning as a subconscious process of communicative development through conveying meanings without necessarily conscious learning of language forms and structures (Nunan, 2004). In summary, TBLT considers activities that involve real communication as fundamental for language learning with activities that involve meaningful language and real communication promoting language learning (Richards and Rodgers, 2001).

Since TBLT draws on the principles of CLT some of its proponents, such as Willis (1996), consider it a pedagogical development of CLT. Willis (1996) developed a three-stage framework through which a typical TBLT classroom could be approached: pre-task, task cycle and language focus, or post-task, all of which may involve sub-stages when implemented in the classroom. The pre-task stage aims to introduce the topic/lesson to learners, highlighting key words and phrases, helping the students to understand the task requirement and preparing the students for the task. This can be achieved by, for example, using pictures, watching short videos, listening to audio extracts, reading a text or asking the students about their own experience (Willis, 1996). The task cycle is divided into three sub-stages: task, planning, and report. This cycle aims to involve learners with the actual

task by, for instance, preparing an oral or written account of the task including how they did the task and what they decided or discovered, and a written or oral report to the whole class (Willis, 1996). Finally, the post-task stage aims to provide a focus on specific features of the text or language and new vocabulary and structures found in the task, that is a focus on language form and use (Willis, 1996). These TBLT principles draw on the cognitivists' views that language material and content need to be developed around tasks that L2 language learners might be expected to carry out in real life (see Section 3.1.2). In addition, TBLT builds on Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal (or Potential) Development (ZPD) theory that provides effective support for language learners to achieve learning tasks beyond their level with appropriate support from peers or teachers (see Section 3.1.3.2). Last but not least, TBLT draws on Long's interaction hypothesis and negotiation of the meaning hypothesis which assumes that pair and group work activities foster language learning through learners' interaction and the negotiation of meaning between learners (see Section 3.1.3.2).

Willis' framework of TBLT is very helpful in providing a step-by-step systematic process for the adoption and implementation of TBLT in diverse language classrooms with a range of learners and situations, including in the Libyan context. For example, Willis (1996) states that although TBLT is normally adopted in small classes, it could be used with large classes, but the only problem would be that the teacher might not have enough time to provide feedback to all students or to monitor all groups. Despite this, Littlewood (2007) shows that TBLT might not be feasible in some contexts, such as Libya, where the students and teachers study English as a school subject rather than a means for communication. Vásquez *et al.* (2013) also argue that TBLT could be unsuitable for low-level students, and Ellis and Shintani (2014) state that several advocates of the TBLT still believe that TBLT might be difficult for some teachers to adopt into their classroom. In the Libyan context, TBLT has never been explored extensively and little, if any, mention of it is made in previous studies. I had never been taught or even heard of TBLT until I studied in the UK. However, Abosnan (2016) did implement some aspects of TBLT to teach English as Foreign Language (EFL) reading skills to some Libyan EFL university students and reported some difficulties as summarised below (Abosnan, 2016).

the students' first language, the idiosyncrasies of the English language, the teacher training and continuing professional development of teachers, the students' lack of vocabulary and their difficulties with grammatical functions such as phrasal and prepositional verbs, forms which do not exist in Arabic, mean that REFL (reading in English as a foreign language) will always be challenging (p. iv).

Having noted this, I still believe that some aspects of TBLT could be successfully implemented in Libya, especially by English as Second Language (ESL) and English as Foreign Language (EFL) teachers. When I started teaching at university in 2011, I adopted some of the practical principles of the TBLT with my students in speaking, writing and linguistics classes despite having large classes of fifty students or more.

In Sections 3.1 and 3.2, I explored major language and learning views and teaching methodologies. The development in learning views meant that teachers are required to adapt their methodologies and techniques in accordance with linguistic and second language acquisition research. In addition, any development in learning and teaching entails that language teachers require certain forms of knowledge and skills to be able to help their students to learn the language effectively and improve their language skills. In the next section, I shall focus on these knowledge types and discuss their relevance to the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs).

3.3 The Language Teacher Knowledge Base (TKB)

In order to first explore the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers' (LEFLUTs) professional development (PD) needs and then to develop CPD material for them, it is important to explore the language teacher knowledge base (TKB) and define its components and to consider what knowledge domains the LEFLUTs possess or lack. The language teacher knowledge base informs the content of teacher education programmes, the pedagogies that are taught in language teacher education and the institutional forms of delivery through which both content and pedagogies are learned (Johnson, 2009). According to Grimmett and MacKinnon (1992, p. 441), teacher knowledge base (TKB) is a "framework for helping prospective and experienced teachers develop their repertoire of responses, understandings, and magical tricks". TKB is a systematic framework that helps to classify the sorts of knowledge that language teachers already have and to understand the development of these types of knowledge and how they relate to each other.

To explore the TKB of language teachers, several researchers and practitioners applied a six-domains TKB proposed by Shulman (1986): *content knowledge*, *general pedagogical knowledge*, *pedagogical content knowledge*, *curricular knowledge*, *learner knowledge*, and *context knowledge*. This classification became the basis for the analysis and description of the TKB of teachers in all disciplines of general education and English language teachers (Day and Conklin, 1992; Colton and Sparks-Langer, 1993; Richards, 1994; Freeman and

Johnson, 1998; Johnson, 1999; Wallace, 2001; Tsui, 2003). While I discuss English as Second Language (ESL) and English as Foreign Language (EFL) teachers' knowledge domains based on Shulman's framework of general education, I will draw on additional relevant ELT literature and frameworks and relate these to the LEFLUTs' knowledge base.

1. Content knowledge

According to Shulman (1986), *content knowledge* (CK) "refers to the amount and organisation of knowledge *per se* in the mind of the teacher" (p. 9). In English Language Teaching (ELT), several definitions have been suggested for CK and its components. For example, Johnston and Goettsch (2000) define CK as language teachers' linguistic knowledge that is mainly related to the topics they are teaching and how they relate to each other. In addition, Lafayette (1993) suggests that CK of language teachers consists of three key elements: *language proficiency*, *civilization and culture*, and *language analysis*. In *language proficiency*, Lafayette (1993) explains that English as Second Language (ESL) and English as Foreign Language (EFL) teachers should have a high level of English language proficiency in terms of the language forms (vocabulary/structures), language skills (listening/writing) and communication skills (function/discourse/meaning). In *civilization and culture*, Lafayette (1993) explains that ESL/EFL teachers need to possess advanced levels of communicative competence (CC) and knowledge of the culture and customs of the target language group (NSs) to help their learners to develop appropriate cultural awareness and communicative skills. And *language analysis* means that ESL/EFL teachers require appropriate knowledge about applied linguistics and second language acquisition (SLA) research (Lafayette 1993).

Building on Lafayette's framework, Richards (1998) defines CK as what language teachers need to know about their subjects such as phonetics and phonology, syntax, SLA, course design, discourse analysis, sociolinguistics and testing and evaluation (p.8). Freeman (2002) also summarises the content of CK as a fixed permanent set of concepts and topics that teachers learn and master by experience, and Day (2003) identifies the components of CK as what language teachers teach such as linguistic aspects of language (grammar, reading, phonology, syntax, discourse, functions) and cultural aspects of language (CC, interaction skills). Similarly, Kumaravadivelu (2012) proposes that CK entails *knowledge about language* (or language proficiency), *knowledge about learning* (or language analysis) and *knowledge about ideology* (or *civilization and culture*). Knowledge about language

includes knowledge of language as system, a discourse and ideology. Language as system focuses on the language systems such as phonology and morphology and language sub-systems such as semantics and syntax (Kumaravadivelu, 2012). Language as discourse is the knowledge of language as a connected spoken and written discourse and deals with the relationship between form, meaning and communicative purpose within a given context (Kumaravadivelu, 2012). Language as ideology goes beyond systematic and discourse features of language to include interactional aspects of language within its social, cultural, political and ideological meanings (Kumaravadivelu, 2012).

Two previous studies involving the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers' (LEFLUTs) reported that they appear to possess knowledge of language proficiency and knowledge about the courses they are teaching (Elabbar, 2011; Suwaed, 2011). Also, since the LEFLUTs have studied English for seven or ten years (Batchelors, Masters, PhDs), it seems reasonable to assume that they are experts in most aspects of English language CK. In addition, as the LEFLUTs hold qualifications in different areas of the English language, we may assume that the LEFLUTs could have acquired and developed strong knowledge about the content of the particular subjects they are teaching. Although the current research aims to develop CPD material for the LEFLUTs, and CPD models usually consist of CK, this study is not going to focus on CK assuming that the LEFLUTs do possess sufficient CK and that my data supports this.

Although CK is a basic component of language teacher education, CK alone is not enough for qualified language teachers and effective teaching (Day and Conklin, 1992), and language teachers also need to know the principles and techniques that help them to transform CK into comprehensible and practical presentations, learning and teaching, for their learners (Hargreaves, 1995). This special type of knowledge is called general pedagogical knowledge, to which I turn next.

2. General pedagogical knowledge

Shulman (1987) defines *general pedagogical knowledge* (GPK) as those “broad principles and strategies of classroom management and organization that appear to transcend subject matter” (p.8). For ELT teachers, GPK refers to the knowledge about processes and practices involved in teaching and learning English through methods, approaches and techniques for learners, in classrooms, with materials and with respect to evaluation (Grossman, 1990). Pineda (2002, p.11) and Day (2003, p.4), call GPK *pedagogic knowledge* (PK), define this as the language teachers' knowledge about generic teaching

strategies, beliefs and practices such as classroom management, motivation and decision-making. Because it includes methodology, activities and techniques, GPK is considered the overall packaging for CK (Freeman, 2002). Accordingly, GPK is the process through which language teachers adjust the content to make it comprehensible for learners and use the same content with diverse learners in diverse situations. Additionally, all language teachers probably need to improve their ability to teach different content, such as language specific skills, to learners of diverse ages and backgrounds (Richards and Farrell, 2005). These definitions suggest that GPK includes the language teacher's knowledge of teaching methodologies and approaches such as grammar translation, communicative language teaching and task-based language teaching (see Sections 3.2). GPK may enable language teachers to understand the principles of SLA, identify their learners' needs, prepare appropriate materials and assign suitable methodologies, approaches or techniques to suit their learners and learning contexts.

Unlike content knowledge (CK), three previous studies on the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers' (LEFLUTs) reported that they do not have adequate GPK (Elabbar, 2011; Suwaed, 2011; Abosnan, 2016). In Chapter Two, it was reported that the LEFLUTs do not receive any INSET or pre-service pedagogic training of any kind. As a result, and as I noted earlier, LEFLUTs often rely on their own experiences as teachers and as learners of the language themselves and they often teach how they were taught and expect learners to learn as they learned. This may suggest that LEFLUTs may lack adequate GPK. Having said this, even when language teachers do possess adequate CK and GPK, they would still need to learn how to put these knowledge types and skills into practice and make the content of their material accessible and comprehensible to the learners. This unique type of knowledge is called pedagogical content knowledge and I explore this next.

3. Pedagogical content knowledge

Shulman (1986) describes *pedagogical content knowledge* (PGK), as a form of content knowledge (CK) for teaching that includes:

for the most regularly taught topics in one's subject area, the most useful forms of representation of those ideas, the most powerful analogies, illustrations, examples, explanations, and demonstrations - in a word, the ways of representing and formulating the subject that make it comprehensible to others (p. 9).

In English Language Teaching (ELT), Richards (1998) refers to PCK as *pedagogical reasoning and decision making skills* which include the preparation and implementation of material, establishing a balance between accuracy and fluency, and the identification and treatment of learners' errors appropriately. In addition, Day (2003) describes PCK as the language teachers' knowledge of the diverse ways of material representations, the ways students comprehend content knowledge (CK), the possible difficulties that the learners might encounter and misconceptions or L1 interference, material evaluation and development and students' evaluation and assessment. According to Day (2002) and Freeman (2002), PCK is a fundamental element of the language teachers' teacher knowledge base (TKB) that is derived from both disciplinary CK and general pedagogical knowledge (GPK). This suggests that PCK incorporates knowledge about material, knowledge about learners, knowledge about learning and knowledge about teaching and addresses the teachers' understanding of specific content and its representation and possible learners' difficulties in learning that content. In addition, PCK entails that language teachers should be aware of the principles of contrastive analysis (CA) to identify similarities and differences between the structural and functional systems of the learners' L1 and the target language and potential learning difficulties and how to address these through the design and presentation of appropriate ELT material (Lems *et al.*, 2009). Moreover, PCK entails the knowledge of *interaction theory*, discussed in Section 3.1, that enables language teachers to transform their teaching material into a comprehensible input through the various modifications and negotiation of meanings to help their learners to attend to the material (Long, 1985, 1996). In addition, if language teachers believe in Chomsky's LAD that would mean they thought that L2 learners would acquire some aspects of the target language, such as the morphological system, in the same order as they had in their L1. This knowledge would encourage those teachers to allow their learners enough time, provide them with opportunities to process language and deal with learners' errors as if part of a natural learning process (Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Nunan, 2001; Lems *et al.*, 2009; Richards and Rodgers, 2014).

Like GPK, PCK has not been specifically addressed by any of the previous studies on the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) although Elabbar (2011) and Abosnan (2016) suggest that their LEFLUT interviewees seem to lack adequate PCK. When Elabbar and Abosnan interviewed the LEFLUTs, they talked about various learner-centred techniques and procedures such as those discussed in the previous section.

However, when they observed these LEFLUTs teaching, Elabbar and Abosnan reported that they seemed unable to teach using learner-centred approaches and that they opted, instead, to use more traditional techniques. This suggests that the LEFLUTs may well lack appropriate PCK.

The above discussion on CK, GPK and PCK suggests that the language teacher TKB consists of interrelated elements rather than discrete disciplinary specific knowledge types and skills and that language teachers require diverse knowledge and skills to teach their material through appropriate representations and to transform it into comprehensible input for the learners. However, to present their material through appropriate representations, language teachers would also need specific knowledge and skills of material design and adaptation. This is knowledge about curriculum, to which I turn next.

4. Curricular knowledge

Curricular knowledge obviously involves knowledge of the curriculum which is defined by Shulman (1986) as:

the full range of programs designed for the teaching of particular subjects and topics at, a given level, the variety of instructional materials available in relation to those programs, and the set of characteristics that serve as both the indications and contraindications for the use of particular curriculum or program materials in particular circumstances. The curriculum and its associated materials are the *materia medica* of pedagogy, the pharmacopeia from which the teacher draws those tools of teaching that present or exemplify particular content and remediate or evaluate the adequacy of student accomplishments (Shulman, 1986, p. 10).

In English Language Teaching (ELT), several definitions have been proposed for what constitutes language teachers' curriculum knowledge. For example, Fradd and Lee (1998) state that curriculum knowledge involves knowledge and understanding of a particular subject area at specific grade levels and the design, development, implementation and adaptation of material to meet the learners' needs and suit their level and context. For Pineda (2002), curriculum knowledge refers to the language teachers' understanding of curricular choices from which they present the topics of their content and deliver instruction with an awareness of other materials that their students may need and be taught. This curriculum knowledge enables language teachers to develop appropriate ELT material and adapt it to suit students with diverse needs in diverse contexts and it can support them in developing their teaching skills and improve their teaching practice (Hutchinson and Torres, 1994).

Within curriculum knowledge, language teachers require knowledge and understanding of second language acquisition (SLA) research, especially the cognitivists' notions of scaffolding and task which become the basis for task-based language teaching (TBLT). For example, knowledge of curriculum entails that the language teachers acknowledge the key role of scaffolding in learning and provide appropriate communicative activities through which low-level and advanced-level students participate effectively, improve their current knowledge and skills and increase the level of their communicative competence (CC) (Donato, 1994). Depending on their curriculum knowledge, language teachers may prepare ELT material and content that promotes both their learners' practice of linguistic competence and focuses on fluency and accuracy through interaction in the target language (Ellis, 2003; Nunan, 2004). As a result, curriculum knowledge entails the language teachers' knowledge of their learners' cognitive abilities and awareness about their learners' ability to learn independently and complete learning tasks effectively (Castagnaro, 2006). Through this curriculum knowledge, language teachers can develop, adapt and use ELT material and content organised around tasks and sequenced in accordance with real life L2 tasks so that their learners develop appropriate CC skills in terms, again, of both accuracy and fluency (Robinson, 2005).

In Elabbar (2011) and Suwaed's (2011) studies, they both reported that although the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) have limited teaching facilities and resources, they usually manage to adapt their material by excluding some content or complementing it with other material using online sources, material from the library or from their own sources. Accordingly, curriculum knowledge would be a key element for the LEFLUTs who prepare and adapt existing material and use diverse sources to suit their students' level and their learning needs based on their experiences. Knowledge of curriculum appears to be a complex multidimensional domain that depends on the teachers' understanding of curriculum and material in use and ability to adapt and develop these materials to suit the learners and their context (Richards and Farrell, 2005). Having said this, even when language teachers have got adequate content knowledge (CK), general pedagogical knowledge (GPK), pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) and curriculum knowledge, their teacher knowledge base (TKB) might not be effective unless they possess adequate knowledge of learners with learner knowledge the fifth type of teacher knowledge and discussed next.

5. Learner knowledge

According to Shulman (1987), knowledge of learners refers to the teacher's understanding of the learners' cognitive, psychological and effective characteristics, behaviours, interests and developmental stages (p. 8). In ELT, knowledge of learners also refers to language teachers' knowledge of how their learners learn, what their learning needs are, what content would support the learners to meet these needs, what approaches and techniques to apply as relevant for their learners, and how to assess their learners (Fradd and Lee, 1998). In addition, Hudelson (2001) explains that knowledge of learners includes the language teachers' understanding of how their learners grow linguistically, socially, emotionally and intellectually as part of supporting their learners to learn language effectively and improve their proficiency. To Pineda (2002), knowledge of learners is the language teacher's knowledge of:

the physical and psychological characteristics of the learners, knowledge about students' cognitive processes and knowledge about how children, adolescents and adults learn (p. 11).

Like other teacher knowledge domains, knowledge of learners is also key for effective classroom instruction and successful language acquisition and includes knowledge about the learners' learning strategies, styles and affective factors. Learning strategies are defined by Oxford (1990) as those strategies employed by learners to improve their learning through active and self-directed learning. In contrast, Oxford and Lavine (1992) describe learning styles as those approaches employed by learners to help them to acquire language such as global or analytic, auditory or visual styles. Finally, Gardner and MacIntyre (1993b) describe learner affective factors as those internal and external factors that impact language learning such as age, motivation and attitudes.

Linking all of this together, knowledge of learners draws on some aspects of general pedagogical knowledge (GPK) and pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) defined above, namely language learning. Moreover, language teachers' knowledge of learners includes the language teachers' awareness, for example, of Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) and constructivism as explained earlier. This can encourage language teachers to employ various approaches and activities to help their learners to relate previous experiences to new learning and provide appropriate guidance and scaffolding to support effective learning (Kaufman, 2004). In addition, an understanding of Vygotsky's constructivism entails that language teachers know that their learners are active participants who require appropriate support and an environment to acquire the language

and who are capable of accomplishing learning tasks if appropriate support is made available for them in ways that help them to progress.

Previous research suggests that the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers' (LEFLUTs) possess some knowledge of learners, namely affective factors. For example, Elabbar (2011), Suwaed (2011) and Abosnan (2016) reported that the LEFLUTs in their study talked about the students' age, motivation and levels and they often saw these as the main obstacles hindering the learners learning and limiting the LEFLUTs' choice of material and methodologies. However, none of these studies reported any evidence on any other affective factors or awareness of learning styles and strategies presented above and so, in this study, I explore the LEFLUTs' knowledge of other aspects of affective factors in more depth.

When the LEFLUTs develop an effective teacher knowledge base (TKB) of all of these knowledge types, they will be better equipped to select suitable material and tools of presentations for their learners and to meet their needs. However, following Black and Wiliam (1998), language teachers need to know about their students' learning progress and difficulties so that they can adapt their teaching and material to meet the diverse needs of their students. But a final and closely related knowledge domain required for an effective language teachers' knowledge base is knowledge about the teaching and learning situation, knowledge of context, and I address this next.

6. Context knowledge

Context Knowledge is described by Shulman (1987) as:

ranging from the workings of the group or classroom, the governance and financing of school districts, to the character of communities and cultures; and knowledge of educational ends, purposes, and values, and their philosophical and historical grounds (p. 8).

In ELT, Richards (1998) summarises knowledge of context as the teachers' knowledge about educational and linguistic policies, students, institutions, and programmes. Pineda (2002) adds that knowledge of context requires language teachers to examine the expectations of society and the education system policy and it helps language teachers to respond to unexpected issues in the classroom and take appropriate action. However, Freeman and Johnson (1998) and Freeman (2002) argue that language teachers require not only knowledge of geographical and physical factors but also a knowledge of values and

ideologies that inform the policies and practices that influence and shape teachers' choices and professional attitudes.

In Chapter Two, I noted that despite efforts to develop and enhance Libyan ELT since the 1950s, its development appears to have been hampered by several contextual factors including the respective government's educational policy, language policy, cultural barriers, lack of facilities, teaching and learning cultures, lack of qualified teachers and a lack of teacher training (Metz, 1989; Vandewalle, 2012). But our knowledge of the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers' (LEFLUTs) knowledge of context is limited due to a lack of research and official sources on the context. However, previous research on the LEFLUTs' current knowledge and practice suggests that the LEFLUTs, overall, seem to lack adequate context knowledge as they usually struggle to prepare appropriate material, manage their classes, help their learners improve their learning, develop their knowledge and improve their practice (Elabbar, 2011; Abosnan, 2016; Aloreobi and Carey, 2017). In addition, previous studies suggest that there appears to be a gap in the LEFLUTs' knowledge base demonstrated in their knowledge and practice. I would suggest that this gap may in part be solved through appropriate knowledge of context which can play a crucial role in determining how teachers implement the material by focusing on the relationship between knowledge and practice (Borg, 2003) and I return to this in my account of developing the CPD material.

3.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented and discussed various views about language and learning and considered their implications for classroom practice. Then, it explored language and learning through several methods and approaches to language teaching and learning. In the last section, I related these views about language and learning to the content of the language teacher knowledge base and domains. In the following chapter I will focus on the relevant CPD literature before going on to demonstrate how the various views about learning here eventually informed my CPD design.

Chapter 4 Continuing Professional Development (CPD)

4.1 Introduction

Because this study will develop continuing professional development (CPD) material for the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs), I will review the current literature on CPD models. In doing so, this chapter defines CPD, presents and discusses different CPD models, and evaluates their theoretical and practical principles in relation to the overall principles of CPD, their advantages and disadvantages, their implementation in English as a second language (ESL) and English as a foreign language (EFL) contexts and their relevance to the Libyan context and the LEFLUTs. This chapter will help to provide theoretical and practical principles for the LEFLUTs' CPD material presented in Chapter Seven.

Before I proceed with this chapter and CPD models, I will define and distinguish between teacher training, teacher development and teacher education. Although the focus of this study is on teacher development, teacher training and teacher education will appear in several occasions in this thesis while surveying or referring to the CPD literature and, later, to my data. According to Freeman (1989), although training, development and education are used interchangeably by many writers, they refer to completely different approaches to teacher learning. Widdowson (1997) draws a distinction between teacher training, teacher development and teacher education in ELT as follows:

teacher training as solution-oriented, with the...implication that teachers are to be given specific instruction in practical techniques to cope with predictable events...while teacher education is problem-oriented, with the implication of ...a broader intellectual awareness of theoretical principles underlying particular practices... Teacher development is a life-long process of growth which may involve collaborative and/or autonomous learning, but the important distinction is that teachers are engaged in the process and they actively reflect on their practices (p. 121)

Depending on context, Wallace (1991) suggested teacher training was based on behaviourist views (see Chapter Three) and was very often presented and managed by experts who transferred specific skills and techniques to teachers. In contrast, Freeman (1989) notes that teacher education draws on cognitivist views and considers teacher learning a mental process of teachers' engagement in problem solving through applying

theory into practice. He also describes teacher development as a constructivist paradigm (see Chapter Three) which aims to generate a change or shift in the awareness of teachers who have active participation in deciding and planning their development through indirect intervention (Freeman, 1989). While the differences in the use of these terms are, today, not so clear-cut, I shall draw on these distinctions between training, education and development, for the remainder of this chapter and I will focus mainly on what I understand as teacher development but draw on education and training whenever it is relevant to do so.

4.2 Models of CPD

Little (1990b) and Kennedy (2007) used continuing professional development (CPD) to refer to all activities that enhance teachers' knowledge and practice and aim to prepare teachers for improved practice in present or future roles. For Day (2002, p. 4), CPD refers to all conscious or unconscious learning activities through which individuals, groups or educational institutions acquire and develop appropriate knowledge and skills so that they contribute to the improvement of an individual's or group's learning and/or profession. Such CPD activities are presented through several forms and models. In this section, I focus on some of these models including a training model, a deficit model, a cascade model, an award-bearing model, a standards-based model, a coaching/mentoring model, reflective practice, a community of practice model, collaborative action research and exploratory practice. I should caution that elements from one CPD model often overlap and so model should not be understood as, necessarily, completely distinct from another model.

4.2.1 Training Model

A training model usually consists of a short term or one day course delivered by external experts and focusing on mastering linguistic and/or metalinguistic aspects of language and theories of classroom methodologies and techniques (Freeman, 2002). Kelly and Williamson (2002) summarise the main principles of the training model as follow:

external presenters/experts delivering their 'expertise' in the form of decontextualised generic strategies to classroom teachers in a passive method disconnected from teachers' daily work (p. 415).

However, Richards (2008) notes that the training model usually entails mastering content knowledge, practising certain pedagogical elements to deliver this content knowledge and

learning the rationale behind these practices. According to Hoban (2002), the training model is still widely used and acknowledged as an effective approach to introduce new knowledge and expertise to novice teachers. However, Kennedy (2005, p. 238) claims that the training model helps “dominant stakeholders to control and limit the agenda, and places teachers in a passive role as recipients of specific knowledge”. In English Language Teaching (ELT), Little (1993) suggests that the training model has been criticised for its focus on the teachers’ development of specific skills and classroom practices and its failure to meet the criteria of effective and constructive continuing professional development (CPD) as it is often without features such as collaboration, reflection, coaching and mentoring. I discuss these features in more depth in the following sections but, for the moment, collaboration can be understood as all formal and informal learning activities that require teachers to work together on a task or to become involved in communities of enquiry (Wenger *et al.*, 2002). Reflection can be explained as the teacher’s active and conscious thinking and consideration of beliefs, knowledge and practice (Griffiths, 2000). In addition, coaching may be defined as a collaborative activity between two individuals and entails a reflective process focused on practices and knowledge and the sharing of ideas and expertise (Robbins, 1995). Finally, mentoring can also be defined as a collaborative activity but collaboration here is very often between an experienced teacher or expert and a novice teacher and it entails instruction, guidance and feedback (Richards and Lockhart, 1994).

The CPD literature reveals that whether the training model is transmissive or constructive depends on the content and delivery of the training. For example, the training model may be useful and constructive to train teachers or professionals to think about the use of certain technology, to adopt specific material or to implement a given CPD activity such as reflection. Accordingly, one advantage of the training model is that it may could the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) to adopt or implement certain methodologies such as preparing communicative language teaching (CLT) and task-based language teaching (TBLT) material and lessons or using modern technology such as interactive boards or adopting a more reflective model of practice and development. Drawing on some principles of the training model, another CPD model was developed to focus on exploring and ‘fixing’ deficiencies in the knowledge base and practices of language teachers. This is the deficit model, which I discuss next.

4.2.2 Deficit Model

As the training model focuses on the development of teachers' professional skills but can neglect their teacher knowledge base (TKB), there was a need to develop a systematic framework for teachers' CPD which, in effect, resulted in the emergence of a deficit model. According to Day and Sachs (2005, p. 9), a deficit model assumes that "teachers needed to be provided with something (knowledge, skills) which they did not already have" (p. 9). In other words, there may be teachers with insufficient TKB or practice awareness who would benefit from appropriate support to develop and improve through the implementation of insights from theory and research (Kiely and Davis, 2010). The deficit model appears to be different from the training model in that it explores the teachers' knowledge and practice, identifies their particular needs and then provides them with the required training to meet these needs. As a result, the deficit model can be more focused on and related to the participants' needs and context than the training model which usually focuses on the teachers' skills (practices) rather than their knowledge. However, Fraser *et al.* (2007) report that although the deficit model can be successful in terms of achievement, it may be less successful than other models in terms of teacher change and development. Kennedy (2014) also concludes that the deficit model is characterised as being remedial, individualistic, behaviouristic, technical, driven by external motives and targeted at external standards.

Despite the above criticism, I would argue that although the deficit model is usually identified as remedial, individualistic and behaviouristic, it can also be developmental, collaborative and constructive, depending on the programme content and delivery. For example, I may use the deficit model to identify deficits in the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers' (LEFLUTs) skills and knowledge, prepare material to address these needs and then present it to the LEFLUTs. I may also use the deficit model to identify the LEFLUTs' needs and prepare appropriate material and deliver it through a constructive approach in which the LEFLUTs collaborate and reflect on their experiences. As a result, the deficit model could be useful and effective for the LEFLUTs depending on the content and delivery of model. To overcome the drawbacks of the deficit model, research on language teacher education suggests another model based on principles from both the training and the deficit models. This is a cascade model which has its own principles and practices to which I turn next.

4.2.3 Cascade Model

Kennedy (2005) explains that the cascade model involves teachers or other professionals attending a training session, workshop or course on certain skills or techniques and then cascading or disseminating what they learn from the training to other individuals. In English Language Teaching (ELT), Hayes (2000) describes it as a:

strategy often adopted for introducing major innovations into educational systems ... in which training is conducted at several levels by trainers drawn from a level above (p. 137).

The primary focus of the cascade model is usually to prepare teacher-trainers who would then train other teachers in other contexts based on information acquired from higher level teachers and experts to lower level and less experienced teachers (Avalos, 2005). Dichaba and Mokhele (2012) explain that the cascade model is commonly adopted in developing countries because it can target a great number of teachers in a short period of time.

Despite its advantages (reaching a significant number of teachers and being cost-effective), the cascade model is usually considered an ineffective model for providing teachers with adequate knowledge and skills (Hayes, 2000). For example, Fiske and Ladd (2004) argue that with intensive information transmitted and training disseminated to great numbers of participants in a short time, there is a high risk of misinterpretation of information and practice. Ono and Ferreira (2010) added that the cascade models cannot effectively prepare qualified teachers to face the challenge of classroom dynamics and to implement new reforms in pedagogy and curriculum. According to Solomon and Tresman (1999), the principle disadvantage of the cascade model is that it focuses on actions (practice), neglects teachers' beliefs, attitudes and values, and offers teachers prescribed practices that mean they can be unable to respond to changes and to developments in teaching and learning with respect to context and curriculum. Having said this, I would suggest that the cascade model could be used to provide knowledge and skills and to help to work with and change teachers' beliefs, attitudes and values depending on the approach taken. For example, I could disseminate knowledge or skills to the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) through an approach where I present the content and the LEFLUTs implement it into their classroom. This would involve the LEFLUTs in the content through a constructive approach where they collaborate with each other and reflect on their experiences while learning the content. They could then work in similar ways with

their colleagues. As a result, the cascade model could be very useful to cascade various features of CPD including collaboration, reflection and coaching.

To overcome the above shortcomings of the training, deficit and cascade models, a course-based continuing professional development (CPD) model was developed based on the completion of academic courses. This is the award-bearing model, which I explore next.

4.2.4 Award-bearing Model

According to Day and Pennington (1993), the award-bearing model assumes that language teachers would be effective practitioners who are capable of teaching various courses to diverse students in different contexts through systematic reflection on their experience, thinking, practice and contexts. They would achieve an academic award obtained after successful completion of work based on academic criteria and that could focus on teachers who have new roles or wish to gain more general pedagogical knowledge (GPK) or content knowledge (CK) and/or a clearer vision for their profession (Day & Pennington, 1993). Day and Pennington (1993) reported that research on language teacher education provides theoretical and practical support for award-bearing courses as potential contributors to the development of language teachers who are at critical stages of their professional roles and development. For example, the award-bearing model can liberate, empower and enhance the capacity building of teachers through research and problem-solving activities based on their classroom teaching (Kennedy, 2014). However, although it depends on the nature and content of the award, Solomon and Tresman (1999) state that sometimes the award-bearing model focuses on the teachers' knowledge and practice and neglects the teachers' autonomous reflection. Finally, Bailey and Sorensen (2013) show that because it is often carried out offsite and targets individual teachers, the award-bearing model mainly focuses on the development of teachers' CK rather than the improvement of the quality of teaching and learning in schools.

Although the award-bearing model might be beneficial for the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) who have not been offered any courses on methodology, under current circumstances the award-bearing model might not be feasible and practical for the LEFLUTs. First, the adoption of such a model would require expertise, resources and funds which are not available. Second, the LEFLUTs are qualified teachers with equivalent degrees in various English language subjects and possess

adequate CK, but they need other knowledge types and skills to be obtained over a series of CPD activities rather than taught content-based courses.

As the award-bearing model usually focuses on the knowledge of individual teachers and may ignore teaching and learning, a standards-based model was developed to promote teachers' PD through professional standards.

4.2.5 Standards-based Model

Standards-based CPD aims to support language teachers' professional development (PD) through meeting a set of criteria related to their knowledge, skills and practice. According to Beyer (2002), the standards-based model focuses on the provision of teaching and teacher education systems that can:

generate and empirically validate connections between teacher effectiveness and student learning. The hope is that if educators can generate performances, content-based instruction, and developmentally appropriate activities, learning will be the inevitable result, based in behavioural psychology and social scientific research (p. 243).

A fundamental principle to the standards-based CPD is that setting professional standards towards which the teachers and institutions work and then evaluating students' attainments could provide potential opportunities for both teacher development and school improvement (Roach and Elliott, 2009). Proponents of the standards-based model argue that the adoption of a participative approach to teachers' development may also encourage teachers to participate in further CPD activities and continue learning (Kirk *et al.*, 2003). Although it has been a dominant approach in language teachers' education, Smyth and Smyth (1991) believe that the standards-based CPD model might hinder the autonomy of teachers and lack the potential to encourage critical thinking and reflection. This is because the standards are usually set by organisations and institutions rather than by the teachers themselves. So Beyer (2002) criticises the view that teachers' PD should be driven by external authorities in the form of standards. It has also been suggested that a standards-based CPD model often fails to provide opportunities for diversity, that it emphasises educational aims over teachers' beliefs and values and that it lacks the opportunities for collaborative and reflective conceptualisation and learning of PD (Purdon, 2003).

Despite the above criticisms, the standards-based model may offer opportunities for the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) to monitor their progress and for the Libyan HEIs to evaluate their quality of teaching. In terms of teachers'

autonomy, beliefs and values, the LEFLUTs might be involved in the formulation of their own PD standards and goals. Moreover, the LEFLUTs could be able to collaborate and reflect on their learning if this CPD adopted interactive and constructive modes of delivery. For example, the LEFLUTs could organise discussion groups or communities of practice to discuss and reflect on their progress and development towards meeting a set of criteria or standards. These discussion groups could involve continuous collaboration between a group of teachers who seek to develop their personal and professional experiences (Head and Taylor, 1997). Communities of practice refer to a group of people with shared experiences and purposes who collaborate to develop their knowledge, enhance their practice and improve their students' learning (Wenger, 1999) and this could be used for standards-based CPD. In addition, the standards-based model might support the LEFLUTs to improve their knowledge and develop their practice through standards without necessarily providing course material or requiring an expert to deliver the material.

However, the critics of standards-based CPD argue that it often encourages individual learning and neglects teachers' particular contexts or support and collaboration, including working with peers, colleagues or experts. If CPD needs a more collaborative and reflective approach to help language teachers to develop their knowledge, improve their skills and meet the challenge of dynamic language classrooms, one of these collaborative approaches is coaching and mentoring and I discuss these next.

4.2.6 Coaching

According to Robbins (1995), coaching is a collaborative process through which colleagues reflect on their current practices, gain new knowledge and skills, share their experiences and learn from each other. Coaching usually involves informal discussions between a teacher and a colleague of similar experience, or between a teacher and an expert, or formal collaboration between two teachers on the design of teaching content, lesson planning, classroom procedures or teaching techniques (Richards and Lockhart, 1994). It may also involve two teachers observing the teaching of each other and providing feedback on their practice, or two teachers co-teaching a class, observing their teaching and providing feedback which could include videotaping their teaching, watching it later with a coach and receiving feedback on their experience (Richards & Lockhart, 1994). According to Richards and Lockhart (1994), coaching supports language teachers to gain knowledge from trusted peers, to receive non-threatening constructive feedback on their

teaching, to increase their teaching expertise, to become less isolated and to develop a sense of community.

Several studies suggest that coaching fosters the professional development (PD) of language teachers and promotes reflective practice through collaborative learning and observation. For example, Joyce and Showers (1988) reported that coaching contributed to teachers' successful implementation of new teaching strategies and techniques. Similarly, Vacilotto and Cummings (2007) reported that coaching supported pre-service EFL teachers to develop their teaching skills through pair and group collaboration and reflection on their teaching practice and classroom problems. This is because coaching is said to create a collegial collaborative environment where language teachers can share, discuss, reflect and get feedback on their practice which promotes PD and change (Nguyen, 2017). In addition, Farrell (2018) found that in an INSET programme with Turkish teachers of English to speakers of other languages (TESOL) using peer coaching involving pair observation and exchanging feedback this promoted collaboration between the teachers and fostered changes in their classroom management skills. Moreover, when introduced to INSET Saudi TESOL teachers, Thomas Farrell (2018) reported that peer coaching involving peer observation and reflection followed by feedback increased the teachers' confidence even for those who had previously rejected getting involved in observation and who had lacked constructive feedback. In an Indian INSET TESOL teachers' programme, Farrell (2018) also found that peer coaching fostered collaboration between Indian TESOL teachers who sought advice from senior colleagues and that this CPD promoted reflective practice and encouraged the teachers to implement new teaching strategies.

Based on the above literature, I suggest that the potential of peer coaching is that it might foster the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers' (LEFLUTs) PD, develop their knowledge, and improve their practice. With the current lack of appropriate support and individualistic approaches to teaching and learning, coaching could support the LEFLUTs in developing their knowledge and teaching skills and improve their practice through collaborative and reflective activities in a safe and friendly environment rather than working or learning on their own. For example, the LEFLUTs might work together to prepare their material or simply prepare their lessons, or they might observe each other teaching and provide non-threatening feedback to each other on their practice but, as I note later, that feedback would need guidance. In addition, the LEFLUTs might work on their classroom problems and challenges, find solutions, implement actions and then evaluate their practices through collaboration and reflection. Besides coaching, language teachers

may also benefit from the advice and instruction whereby an expert and less experienced teacher collaborate to develop knowledge and improve practice and understandings, and this is mentoring, which I discuss next.

4.2.7 Mentoring

According to Richards and Lockhart (1994, p. 151), mentoring is a “particular form of peer coaching process whereby an experienced teacher works with a novice teacher, giving guidance and feedback”. Unlike coaches, mentors are usually experienced and trained experienced teachers who often receive special training and support to become mentors. These trained mentors help novice teachers to learn the philosophy, cultural values and behaviours established within their teaching context (Little, 1990a). In mentoring, a mentor instructs and guides a mentee, a less experienced teacher who needs support and guidance (Richards and Farrell, 2011). According to Long *et al.* (2012), mentoring is now considered a fundamental strategy for supporting language teachers to effectively sustain their professional development (PD) and effectively continue learning.

Several studies indicate effective outcomes of mentoring CPD activities. For example, Nguyen and Baldauf Jr (2010) reported that when Vietnamese pre-service TESOL teachers participated in a pre-service teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL) course involving a mentor, mentoring developed support and trust between these teachers and encouraged them to reflect effectively on their experiences. In addition, Waring (2013) evaluated the impacts of a pre-service TESOL course on promoting reflective practice among teachers in the USA and found that a mentor’s feedback promoted reflective thinking among teachers who analysed the effectiveness and success of their lessons and pedagogical practice and changed their behaviour. Zhu (2014) examined the role of reflection on Chinese pre-service TESOL teachers and concluded that reflection could have been more effective if the pre-service teachers had been assisted with a mentor so that they could become more critical and independent thinkers. Finally, Farrell (2018) explored some pre-service and INSET ESL and EFL teachers’ professional development (PD) programmes and reported that when language teachers engaged in reflection on their practice without appropriate mentoring, these teachers managed only descriptive rather than analytical reflection and tended to self-blame and that they focused on their behaviour and neglected their students’ learning.

In Chapters Two and Three, it was suggested that the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) seem to individually and unsystematically collaborate and reflect on their experiences due to the lack of appropriate support. As a result, the potentially positive impacts of mentoring on the language teachers' PD suggest that the potential of mentoring is that it might support the LEFLUTs to develop their knowledge and improve their teaching practice through this more systematic and collaborative approach. My discussion on the previous CPD models suggests that effective language teacher CPD activities depend, in large part, on the degree and extent to which language teachers collaborate and reflect on their teaching and learning experience. These principles led to the development of reflective and collaborative CPD models including reflective practice, which I present next.

4.2.8 Reflective Practice

In language teacher education, the current reflective practice approach owes many of its principles to Dewey (1933) who cautioned against teachers following “merely repetitive, blind and impulsive” routines in their thinking and teaching (p. 17). Dewey calls on teachers to free themselves from fixed routines of thinking and practice through reflective practice which he defines as:

an active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it and the further consequences to which it leads (Dewey, 1933, p. 9).

To become aware of and develop their practice, teachers are required to relate their actual experiences (personal, professional or social) to systematic reflective practices (Dewey, 1933). In addition, Schon (1983) believes that reflective practice can:

serve as a corrective to overlearning where practitioners can surface and criticize the tacit understandings that have grown up around the repetitive experiences of a specialized practice and can make new sense of the situations of uncertainty or uniqueness which they may allow themselves to experience (p.61).

According to Schon (1983), when the teachers' practice is repetitive and impulsive, they may not have the opportunities to think and reflect on their practice and reactions. Schon (1983) distinguishes between knowing-in-action, reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action. Knowing-in-action is an intuitive, routine and spontaneous reaction to teaching and learning experiences that tends to reside with expert teachers rather than with novice or less experienced teachers. As Schon (1983) puts it, knowing-in-action means “thinking on

your feet, keeping your wits about you and learning by doing” (p. 54). In contrast, reflection-in-action occurs when teachers critically think about their teaching and learning experiences while they are engaged in these experiences. Finally, reflection-on-action entails that teachers reflect on their previous teaching and learning experiences through critical analysis and thinking and that they amend their understandings and practices in the light of this new knowing. In language teacher education, reflective practice entails that language teachers critically and reflectively think about their own beliefs, assumptions, and values about language teaching and learning and practice and Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) might exhibit Schon’s repetitive and impulsive practices without, at the moment, enough opportunity to, they may not have the opportunities to think and reflect on their practice and reactions.

According to Richards (1990), reflective practice helps language teachers, such as the LEFLUTs, to share and discuss problems and issues related to their teaching and suggest possible solutions and move from a largely guided by impulse, intuition or routine level of practice to a level of practice guided by reflection and critical thinking. Richards and Lockhart (1994) also emphasise that language teachers should:

collect data about their teaching, examine their attitudes, beliefs, assumptions, and teaching practices, and use the information obtained as a basis for critical reflection about teaching (p. 1).

Johnson and Freeman (2001) also state that reflection on and inquiry into teachers’ experiences are essential mechanisms for the improvement of language teachers’ practice and their professional development. In addition, Bigelow and Walker (2004) report that reflective practice supports language teachers in diverse settings with a wide range of knowledge and expertise to deal with various issues through exploring their complex beliefs, understandings, experiences and practices in various collaborative and individual activities. Farrell (2007) adds that language teachers can develop their knowledge base and improve their practice through conscious and systematic reflection on their experiences. Finally, Richards (2008) and Farrell (2018) suggest that reflective practice supports language teachers in many EFL/ESL situations to change their approach and attitudes towards teaching and learning, to learn new approaches and techniques, and to successfully implement new reforms.

The LEFLUTs’ situation suggests that reflective practice could support them to resolve many of the issues and obstacles they face including students’ low motivation and achievement and their own lack of training. As the LEFLUTs lack support and usually

perform based on unsystematic and individualistic approaches, talking to colleagues and sharing teaching and learning experiences through systematic approaches might encourage them to collaborate with each other to examine their practice, and to improve their teaching and learning approaches accordingly.

Structured approaches to reflection, individual or collaborative, mean that language teachers can reflect through systematic processes, or cycles with step-by-step guidance on how to reflect. In the next section, I present and discuss some of these reflective cycles.

4.2.8.1 Reflective Cycles

There are various cycles through which reflection can be achieved as proposed by Dewey (1933), Kolb (1984) and Gibbs (1988). These cycles offer systematic frameworks for teachers, including the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs), to explore their practices, learn from their experience and engage in a formal process that can be systematically learned and consciously implemented.

Dewey's Reflective Cycle

According to Dewey (1933, pp. 106-107), reflective practice is the product of emotions and feelings that lead to doubts or conflicts about teaching through five phases: suggestion, intellectualisation, guiding ideas and reasoning and hypothesis testing as shown in the list below.

- 1. Suggestion:** a teacher might see or face a doubtful situation or problematic area, make some suggestions and consider possible solutions. For example, a teacher might face a challenge with students of low motivation and think they just do not want to learn and that there is nothing s/he can do.
- 2. Intellectualisation:** after identifying the issue, the teacher intellectualises it into a problem to be solved. For example, the teacher wonders if the students are not motivated because the content is not interesting or that it is too much above or below their level (and they might use Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) to question this).
- 3. Guiding Idea:** here, if the first suggestion does not seem to help or seems wrong, then the teacher searches for other suggestions on why the students are not

motivated. It might be the students do not like the course or the teacher, or they might dislike the teacher's approach. Teachers may seek help and advice here, or even talk to the students about the issue.

- 4. **Reasoning:** this phase links the previous experiences and suggestions with the current situation and helps to elaborate the process of switching back and forward into a supposition or idea. For example, the teacher concludes that the students are not motivated because they have too much other studying to do or because they think learning English is too hard.
- 5. **Hypothesis testing:** after ideas and suppositions are refined, the teacher tests them either overtly by observing and maybe talking to the students or covertly by thinking about it.

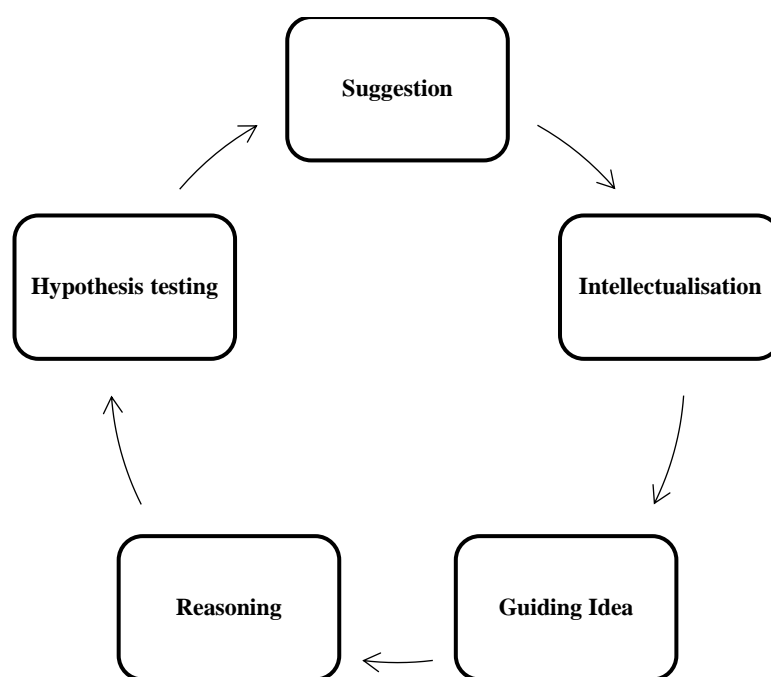


Figure 2- Dewey's Reflective Cycle (Adapted from Dewey 1933, p. 107)

Dewey's cycle could be very useful for the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) to help them to reflect and critically think about their teaching and learning experiences through five simple steps in which they might start at any stage rather than sticking to the above format. Drawing on Piaget's (1970-72) views on

human development and Dewey's (1933-38) views on experiential learning, Kolb (1984) developed a four-step-cycle to reflection, which I explore next.

Kolb's Reflective Cycle

Kolb's reflective cycle is based on his Experiential Learning Theory that was developed from a Learning Style Inventory (Kolb, 1976, 1981, 1984). The Learning Style Inventory (LSI) was developed by Kolb (1976) to help individuals to identify their preferred style or way of learning from experience based on a nine item self-description questionnaire. The individuals' responses to each item was said to describe their learning styles and corresponds to one of four learning modes: Concrete Experience (feeling), Reflective Observation (watching), Abstract Conceptualization (thinking), and Active Experimentation (doing) (Kolb, 1981, p. 290). In addition to its measurement of the degree to which the individuals emphasise these four learning styles, the LSI also indicates the extent to which individuals emphasise abstractness over concreteness or action over reflection (Kolb, 1981, p. 290).

Based on his LSI, as well as the work of key twentieth century scholars who emphasised the role of experience on human learning and development such as Piaget and Dewey, Kolb (1981-1984) developed his Experiential Learning Theory (ELT) that maintains that learning is a process involving "the resolution of dialectical conflicts between opposing modes of dealing with the world - action and reflection, concreteness and abstraction" (Kolb, 1981, p. 290). In other words, learning is a process of knowledge construction that involves four modes of experiential learning abilities: *concrete experience abilities* (CE), *reflective observation* (RO), *abstract conceptualisation abilities* (AC) and *active experimentation* (AE) (Kolb 1984). In practice, these four stages can be explained as follows. CE would mean that a teacher needs to actively experience something which is the basis for observation and reflection, such as students' low motivation. RO would mean that the teacher consciously thinks backwards and forwards on the experienced activity through observation and reflection. It entails that the teacher conceptualises and proposes some reasons behind the students' low motivation and reconsiders his/her assumption if they do not work. In AC, the teacher would assimilate and distil reflection and observation into theories or models which transform the activity (concrete experience) into new knowledge and learning (abstract experience). Lastly, AE would enable the teacher to actively test the learned experience through actual implementation which serves as a guide for the creation of new experiences.

These four LSI modes and ELT abilities became the basis for Kolb's process of reflective cycle as shown in Figure Three below:

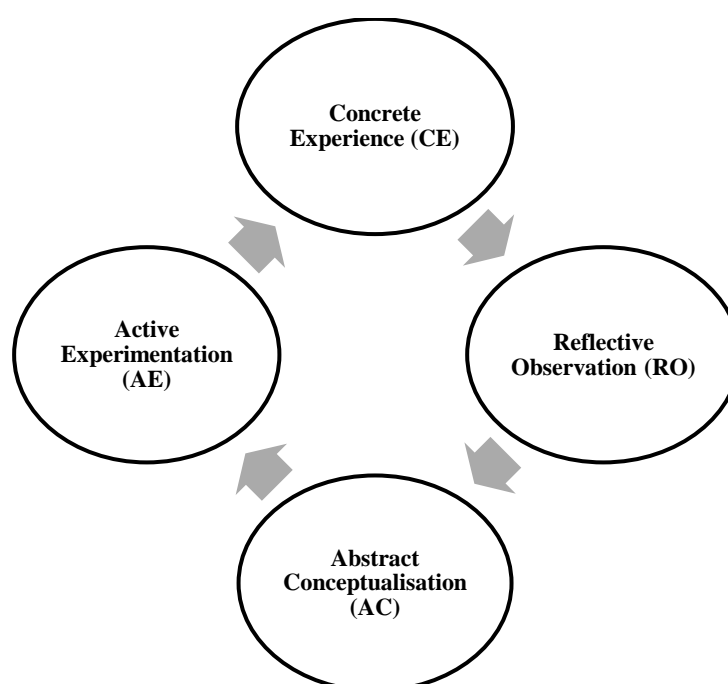


Figure 3- Kolb's Reflective Cycle (Adopted from Kolb 1984, p. 21)

Although his reflective cycle looks static and systematic moving from one stage to another, Kolb (1984) explained that teachers might recycle many times and start the reflection process at any point of the cycle. However, Newman (1999) found that Kolb's cycle was:

too ordered, too regular, too predictable. It seems to imply an imperative: that we must move through the cycle, that we must move on to the next stage, rather than letting experiences enter into our souls to rest there, develop, change and influence us in some more disordered, unexpected and natural way (p. 84).

Moon (2004) also adds that Kolb's reflective cycle is simplistic and formulaic, neglects other factors such as transfer of learning, draws on the idea of experience as a personal phenomenon, and ignores tacit knowledge. Tacit knowledge is introduced and defined by Polanyi (1966) as the knowledge that teachers acquire through learning, teaching or personal and social experiences and that teachers know but cannot or do not express in words or put into practice. Despite this, I would argue that this might give Kolb's cycle an advantage over more complex or unpredicted cycles to be adopted by the Libyan English

as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) who seem to reflect and collaborate through individual and unsystematic approaches. This four-mode model does, of course, have overlaps with Schon's model but the LEFLUTs might benefit from a simple step-by-step process of reflection such as Kolb's so that they may become initially familiar and comfortable with reflection without the fear of being confused and as a route to accepting change.

Arguing that personal reflection is a revolving process of going forwards and backwards rather than a static process, Gibbs (1988) developed a reflective cycle based on Kolb's ELT, which I discuss next.

Gibbs' Reflective Cycle

Originally developed as a debriefing sequence, Gibbs' reflective cycle is built on Kolb's work. Gibbs (1988) argues that common structured discussions and debriefings do not usually support individuals to fully reflect on their experiences and benefit from their experiences. As a result, Gibbs (1988) suggested a six-stage fully structured debriefing process built on Kolb's Experiential Learning Theory (ELT): *description* (what happened?), *feeling* (what were you thinking and feeling?), *evaluation* (what was good and bad about the experience?), *analysis* (what sense can you make of the situation?), *conclusion* (what else could you have done?) and *action plan* (if it arose again, what would you do?) (Gibbs, 1988, pp. 49-50). As illustrated in the list below, this debriefing process was then developed and adopted as a reflective cycle that aims to help individuals systematically reflect on their experiences through a process of going forwards as well as backwards through events and reflection.

- 1. Description (what happened?):** the shortest stage, this describes the event and includes key information on what happened, what was involved and how did it look. For example, a teacher might face the challenge of students with low motivation. First, the teacher explains what indicated the students' low motivation, what could be behind the students' low motivation and under what circumstances the students might have become demotivated.
- 2. Feeling (what were you thinking and feeling?):** after identifying the issue, then the teacher considers his/her thinking and feeling about the event and whether s/he has got positive or negative feelings about the situation. For example, when the

teacher notices the challenge of students' low motivation, the teacher describes his/her feelings about this issue by using words like nervous, upset, angry, relaxed or optimistic. In addition, the teacher starts thinking about the situation and the impacts of his/her thoughts on the event.

3. **Evaluation (what was good and bad about the experience?):** having identified the issue and elaborated his/her thoughts, then the teacher might explore his/her experience and consider positive or negative sides of the situation, including what others and s/he did or did not do well. Taking the example of students with low motivation, the teacher may evaluate his/her reaction and what steps s/he has taken to increase the students' motivation; how did s/he see this issue; or what did the students do or not do to improve their situation?
4. **Analysis (what sense can you make of the situation?):** this is the most significant stage in which the teacher tries to make sense of the situation and draws on his/her experience and knowledge and relevant literature. Continuing with the example of students with low motivation, the teacher may explore the learners' motivation in the literature, relate the literature to his/her situation and then explain and identify reasons for the students' low motivation.
5. **Conclusion (what else could you have done?):** having effectively and successfully completed the above four stages, then the teacher brings together all insights from the previous stages so that s/he can draw appropriate conclusions based on his/her understanding of the experience and relevant literature. At this stage, the teacher should be able to reach a logical conclusion that explains why the students have low motivation and be able to suggest practical and appropriate actions that would make the students' learning experience better and increase their motivation.
6. **Action plan (if it arose again, what would you do?):** this is the last stage which deals with suggestions for the future if the teacher experiences the same issue, or if similar issues occur. For example, if the students' motivation improves, but then it decreases again with the same or a similar group of students, would the teacher still take the same actions above or would s/he revisit the cycle again from the beginning? The cycle suggests that the teacher is required to revisit the cycle again

whenever the same or similar issues occur which means that the cycle is iterative in nature.

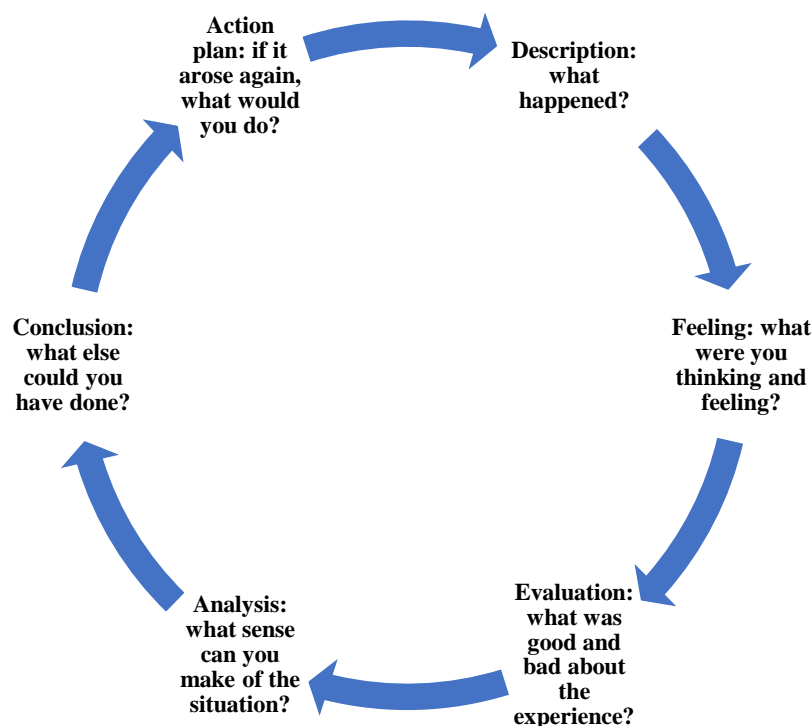


Figure 4- Gibbs' Reflective Cycle (cited in Linda 2008, p. 8)

Gibbs' reflective cycle could provide a useful tool for novice or less experienced teachers, such as the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs), who are new to reflective practice and it could help to structure reflection through answering basic questions with one leading to another (Finlay, 2008; Forrest, 2008). In addition, it may help the LEFLUTs to engage in reflective practice through a systematic simple step-by-step cycle that can be offered to the LEFLUTs in a short workshop or collaboratively or individually learned by the LEFLUTs themselves.

Regardless of what reflective cycle language teachers might adopt, there are various approaches through which language teachers can reflect on their practice. In the following section, I will present and discuss some of these approaches and evaluate their relevance for the LEFLUTs.

4.2.8.2 Approaches to Reflective Practice

Reflective practice could be introduced to language teachers, including the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs), in course material or a workshop session through various forms and activities such as reflection groups, journals writing, observation and portfolios and I outline these below.

Teacher Reflection Groups

A reflection group is designed to encourage language teachers to work together, reflect and explore their practice and classroom issues and plan their PD in a safe environment. According to Head and Taylor (1997), reflection groups refer to:

any form of co-operative and ongoing arrangement between two or more teachers to work together on their own personal and professional development (p. 91).

Matlin and Short (1991) note that reflection groups can promote change in teachers' thinking and beliefs about their profession and self and that it can help make them more confident practitioners. Moreover, in contexts such as Libya, where there is a lack of resources and facilities, reflection groups might help language teachers to collaborate, share and exchange resources, information and expertise, and to effectively reflect on their experiences and improve their practice and their students' learning according to Farrell (2007). One advantage of this approach is that it may help the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) who, as noted, usually perform in isolation and lack appropriate support, to collaborate and reflect on their experiences in their workplace and to decide on areas for their professional development and the activities which would help them to achieve their goals. The idea of support embedded within reflection groups appears to be linked with coaching and mentoring discussed above and so, in reflective groups, the LEFLUTs may benefit from the advice and support of peers or experienced colleagues and experts on the processes and procedures of their reflection.

Even if reflection groups are difficult to organise, due to time constraints or large numbers of teachers, teachers may still be able to reflect on their experiences through writing in journals which I present next.

Journal Writing

According to Richards and Lockhart (1994), journal writing refers to language “teacher’s or teacher-learner’s written response to teaching events” (p. 7). This journal writing can be planned and written by an individual teacher or organised and conducted in pairs or reflection groups (Farrell, 2013). Whether it is individual or collaborative, Farrell (2013) considers journal writing an efficient tool for reflection because it encourages language teachers to reflect on their knowledge and practice as they have write and carefully examine their thoughts. This aspect of journals, collaboration and support, appears to link journals with reflection groups, coaching and mentoring where the teachers get guidance and advice of a coach/mentor or from a colleague.

Bailey (1990) and Seaman *et al.* (1997) found that writing journals can encourage busy teachers to explore their knowledge and evaluate their practice and try new ideas which they might not be able to implement when they work alone. Jarvis (1992) employed journal writing to promote reflection among language teachers in an INSET programme and reported that writing journals helped language teachers, as a problem-solving technique, to discover new ideas about their teaching and to validate their practice. Moreover, McDonough (1994) found that when experienced language teachers reflected on their teaching experiences through journal writing, these teachers became aware of their day-to-day routines and underlying attitudes and realises the processes of thinking about and setting learning outcomes and making decisions as required in their teaching situations.

Because of their relatively isolated and unsupported context, writing journals could help the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) to reflect on their experience, evaluate their practice, monitor their professional development (PD) and their students’ learning, and critically think about their own teaching and their students’ learning. Beside discussions and writings, language teachers, including the LEFLUTs, could also reflect on their experiences through observation as outlined below.

Observation

In this study, as well as in language teacher education in general, observation refers to a professional development (PD) and reflective approach rather than a purely evaluative method. According to Farrell (2018), observation is a systematic approach to reflection, evaluation and management of teachers’ PD in which teachers observe themselves or other peers and reflect on that in a follow-up written or video-taped account. Whether it is

individual or collaborative, observation can promote reflection and collaboration among language teachers through a written account, a recording or simply discussion of their teaching by reflecting on it and evaluating their experience (Richards, 1990). Farrell (2007) argues that when language teachers individually observe their practice, they become critical thinkers and move from a practice guided by impulse, intuition or routine to a practice guided by reflection and critical thinking. But when language teachers engage in collaborative observation, they can develop more collegiality, become aware of and perhaps learn from teaching techniques and strategies used by other teachers, and construct, reconstruct and adapt their own teaching (Farrell, 2007).

Akcan (2010) and Eröz-Tuğa (2012) employed a video-based reflection with pre-service Turkish TESOL teachers to encourage them to reflect on their teaching before, during and after observation and through retrospective feedback. Akcan (2010) reported that this increased the TESOL teachers' awareness of their actual practice and communicative competence and developed their understanding about their students' learning and behaviours. In addition, Eröz-Tuğa (2012) reported that observation improved Turkish TESOL teachers' self-awareness, helped them to overcome various issues noted by the supervisor during the feedback sessions, and to notice and resolve their own problems by themselves (Eröz-Tuğa, 2012). Finally, Day (2013) also encouraged pre-service TESOL teachers to reflect on their practice based on peer observation feedback and found that this helped these teachers to become reflective practitioners and improve their teaching practice.

Despite the above advantages, classroom observation can be frightening and stressful for many language teachers who would rather avoid being observed by peers or experts (Richards and Lockhart, 1994; Farrell, 2007). Observation may also be problematic for the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) who usually get anxious about observation and consider it an evaluation of their teaching. Richards and Lockhart (1994) proposed that one way to help language teachers to view observation as a positive experience is to limit the objective of observation and the role of observer to an information process rather than an evaluation technique. This may help the LEFLUTs to realise that observation is not an evaluation of their teaching but a developmental process of problem-solving and shared values designed to encourage them to critically think and reflect on their own practice as well as their peers. That said, I am aware that guidance will be required with respect to observation in order to ensure it is a positive developmental activity. I turn now to portfolios as a further reflective instrument in CPD.

Portfolio

Shulman (1998) describes a teaching portfolio as:

the structured, documentary history of a set of coached or mentored acts of teaching, substantiated by samples of students portfolios, and fully realised only through reflective writing, deliberation, and conversation (p. 37).

Portfolios can be very useful reflective instruments that reflect the teachers' efforts, skills, abilities, achievements and professional development (PD) and, as appropriate, show their collaboration with colleagues within institutions, academic disciplines or learning communities (Brown and Wolfe-Quintero, 1997). Davis and Osborn (2003) explain that since language teachers often perform in isolation even when they are in a teaching community, shared portfolios may help them to become less isolated and support them to explore their teaching practice and share their experiences. Portfolios can promote reflective enquiry, self-assessment and collaboration, provide self-renewal, encourage ownership and empowerment and show teachers' efforts, skills, abilities, achievements, contributions and development (Brown and Wolfe-Quintero, 1997; Farrell, 2002b).

Despite their advantages, Shulman (1998) shows that portfolios can be used to 'show off' if they are only an exhibition, a display, of teachers' development and work. Second, an effective and well-done portfolio puts an extra load on language teachers who may be, like the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs), already busy enough with teaching and other academic work. Third, some teachers might include things which are not useful or worth reflecting on and, finally, the focus on the content of a portfolio may misrepresent the teachers' practice and rely on displaying knowledge and skills (Shulman, 1998, pp. 36-37). Having said this, I suggest that the LEFLUTs could prepare reflective portfolios once or twice a week, or whenever they have time, and there is a reason to do so. Based on the LEFLUTs' practicum that is so often carried out in isolation, the advantages of this approach are that it may provide opportunities for the LEFLUTs to reflect on and share their teaching and learning experiences, evaluate their own knowledge and practice and demonstrate increased effort in their teaching and PD. But regardless of the reflective cycle or approach that language teachers may be encouraged to adopt in CPD, reflective practice is said to be more effective and constructive when language teachers share and discuss their experiences within communities of practice, to which I turn next having already suggested collaborative approaches above.

4.2.9 Community of Practice Model

It is widely acknowledged that becoming an English language teacher means becoming part of a community of people with shared goals, values discourse, practices and context (Richards, 2008). This community of people is called a community of practice which Wenger *et al.* (2002) defines as:

groups of people who share a concern, a set of problems, or a passion about a topic, and who deepen their knowledge and expertise in this area by interacting on an ongoing basis (p. 4).

Based on the constructivists' views (See Chapter Three), a community of practice assumes that the language teachers' professional development (PD) is fostered through engagement in social practices and collaborative construction of meanings (Richards, 2008) which aim to support language teachers to construct new knowledge through collaboration, reflection and sharing knowledge and experiences (Putnam and Borko, 2000; Butler *et al.*, 2004). In addition, Webster-Wright (2009) and Opfer *et al.* (2011) state that a community of practice can support language teachers to sustain their PD and offer opportunities for them to collaborate and reflect on their experiences. Accordingly, a community of practice shares the learning principles of both coaching and mentoring and values the key role of interaction and collaboration between teachers to foster PD. However, while coaching and mentoring support the PD of language teachers through interaction and collaboration between two individuals, communities of practice involve a group of people who are generally at the same level and who share similar learning needs (Richards and Farrell, 2011).

Wenger (1999) states that communities of practice support language teachers to develop a sense of socialisation, collegiality, identity and role while enhancing their knowledge and practice. Richards (2008) also adds that communities of practice encourage language teachers to share ideas and professional thinking, to examine and re-examine their teaching practice, and to develop appropriate pedagogic practices for effective teaching. In addition, Nguyen (2017) mentions that communities of practice foster reflective and collaborative practices among language teachers and encourage them to explore ideas, thoughts, practices and beliefs. As a result, for many EFL/ESL contexts, including Libya where language teachers often lack appropriate support and work in isolation, communities of practice may provide opportunities for them to discuss their issues, share their thoughts and resources, reflect on their experiences, plan their PD and collaborate to achieve their goals.

However, while communities of practice would be very useful for the LEFLUTs, the education system and the individualistic and traditional approaches among the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) may not encourage this collaborative learning environment. Second, and relatedly, it will almost certainly require time for the LEFLUTs to become familiar with collaborative learning and to become aware of its benefits. Beside communities of practice, language teachers also have other opportunities for collaborative learning that foster their PD and help them to reflect. One of these options is to come together and undertake some sort of research such as action research, which I discuss next.

4.2.10 Collaborative Action Research

Collaborative action research draws on the principles of action research which is described as a formal and systematic approach to research that is conducted by teachers, educators or any other individuals to solve problems and improve situations. According to Carr and Kemmis (1986), action research (AR) is:

a form of self-reflective enquiry undertaken by participants in social situations in order to improve the rationality and justice of their own practices, their understanding of these practices, and the situations in which the practices are carried out (p. 162).

AR entails a conscious and systematic self-reflective process of problem-solving and deliberate intervention to make improvements and to make situations better (Burns, 1999). Kemmis and McTaggart (1988) proposed a four-phase cycle through which AR is typically conducted: planning, action, observation and reflection.

1. **Planning:** practitioners identify a problem or an issue in their context and develop a plan of actions in order to make the situation better. They consider 1) what kind of investigation is possible within the realities of constraints of the situation 2) what potential improvement they think are feasible.
2. **Action:** after they have identified the issue, the practitioners make some deliberate interventions into their teaching situation that they put into action over an agreed period of time. This is a critical step as the assumptions made about the current situation are questioned and new ways and alternatives of doing things are planned.

3. **Observation:** here teachers systematically observe the effects of their actions and document the context, actions and opinions of those involved. In this stage, data is collected about what is happening with an open eye and an open mind.
4. **Reflection:** in this final step, the practitioners reflect on, evaluate and describe the effects of the action and make sense of what has happened and understand the issue they have examined more clearly. Practitioners then may decide to do another cycle of inquiry to improve even more or share the findings with others as part of their professional development (Kemmis and McTaggart, 1988, pp. 11-14).

Despite its wide use in school-based curriculum development, professional development, school improvement programmes, and system planning and policy development, opponents of AR argue that it is not so different from other forms of formal research, it adds extra work for the teachers who already have enough to do, it lacks collaboration among teachers and it encourages problem-based practices (Burbank and Kauchak, 2003). As a result of these criticisms, AR was developed to include collaboration, reflection and informal data collection, analysis and interpretation. This led to collaborative action research which Burbank and Kauchak (2003) describe as a group of teachers working together in designing, implementing and evaluating formalised research through active involvement that provides opportunities for collaborative enquiry and communities of practice.

Burbank and Kauchak (2003) state that collaborative AR supports language teachers to improve the quality of their teaching, their students' learning and their teaching and learning environment but that it depends on the teachers' collaborative, self-reflective involvement and critical thinking to improve through various systematic approaches (Burns, 2010). Collaborative AR is also typically conducted through the same four phases of the AR research cycle presented above and as cited in Richards and Lockhart (1994), Burns (1999), Farrell (2007) and Burns (2010). In language teacher education, collaborative AR is seen as advantageous because it empowers language teachers, increases their autonomy, improves their teaching techniques classroom procedures and their students' achievements (Weiner, 2002; Burbank and Kauchak, 2003). As noted by Tomlinson (2013), while language teachers get involved in the process of developing awareness and skills, these teachers:

can also develop the ability to theorize their practice, to question their procedures, to check their hypotheses and to find answers to their questions about the processes of language learning and teaching (p. 482).

However, Bigelow and Walker (2004) note that in many EFL situations, and this potentially applies to Libya, CPD may be delivered to teacher-learners in large classes and implemented through a top-down approach with content based on pre-determined knowledge. In these contexts, teacher-learners may then be required to implement the content of CPD to extremely large classes with few opportunities for exploring and refining their practice based on inquiry and reflective practice. Collaborative action research might not be easily implemented in Libya or appropriately adopted by the LEFLUTs who teach large classes, have heavy teaching loads, lack appropriate resources and very often perform in isolation but it is, nonetheless, worth exploring. The above concerns then led to the development of another form of AR that aims to support language teachers and learners to identify and explore puzzles through informal simple techniques. This is exploratory practice to which I turn next.

4.2.11 Exploratory Practice (EP)

Exploratory Practice was developed in the early 1990s by Dick Allwright during his work on a practical course on classroom research as a teacher and research consultant to the Cultura Program in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil (Allwright, 2003). As the participants were part-timers and had other paid jobs to do, Allwright (2003) soon realised that the original project was impractical and insufficient to prepare the sort of classroom researchers he wanted to encourage despite the teachers' efforts and enthusiasm to improve their teaching with new up-to-date pedagogy. At this point, Allwright reconsidered, challenged the practice of the current approaches to classroom-based research, and proposed a 'quality of life' concept of practitioner research, which became known as 'Exploratory Practice' (EP) (Allwright, 2003).

EP is a form of practitioner research in language teacher education that integrates research and pedagogy and encourages language teachers and learners to explore the life of their classroom as they engage with language teaching and learning (Hanks, 2017). EP rejects the common approach to classroom-based research of identifying isolated problems related to language teaching and learning and finding practical solutions to them and advocates, instead, puzzling about language teaching and learning (Allwright, 2003). EP considers reflection and collaboration as key factors for effective and sustainable learning and

emphasises sustainability of learning and quality of life and experience (Allwright, 2003, 2005). EP is based on a set of five principles rather than classroom practices: quality of life, working for understandings, collegiality and mutual development and making the work a continuous enterprise and I outline these principles below.

1. Quality of life

Allwright (2003) argues that common research approaches to language teachers and their profession usually view teachers and their lives as two separate identities. Instead, he found that:

Cultura teachers offered a radically different perspective. I saw excellent teachers under constant pressure to ‘enhance’ their teaching with the latest pedagogical ideas, so battered by the ceaseless demand for novelty that they were at severe risk of ‘burnout’, of becoming ‘cosmically tired’ of the job they were doing so well (Allwright, 2003, p. 119).

According to Hanks (2015), the quality of life principle challenges the traditional view of a life and work dichotomy and suggests that language teachers (practitioner researchers) should consider their life and profession in the classroom as one dimension rather than two separate identities. This quality of life principle appears to be extremely relevant to the aim, focus and content of my study. The Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) are qualified teachers with a wide range of knowledge and skills who, like all of all of the time, could do better and improve their teaching and their students’ learning experiences if appropriate support could be provided for them. The focus on the quality of life, that is the teachers and learners’ own lives and experiences, in the language classroom may encourage hard-working language teachers and learners to work together in a friendly and productive environment that fosters sustainable learning. Allwright (2003) and Allwright (2005) argue that action research (AR) practitioners have the potential to burn out due to endless demands for novelty and the application of new ideas and they may also stop teaching. In Libya, the LEFLUTs as noted so far and as my data illustrates, are not so much required to meet demands for novelty and to apply new ideas but almost the opposite, They are constantly beset, as my data will show, by challenges such as large classes, students they regard as of low ability and motivation, inadequate resources, and few if any opportunities for CPD or even support. This means that, even if for different reasons, the LEFLUTs can suffer from burn out and so these quality of life principles, intended to help exploratory practice (EP) practitioners sustain their development and

continue learning without burning-out are of significant interest and will be applied in my CPD. I turn now to another aspect of exploratory practice: understanding.

2. Working for understandings

Instead of only problem-solving, exploratory practice (EP) emphasises researching for understanding and improvement around the quality of life. Allwright (2003) shows that EP can encourage:

linguistically productive ways of developing classroom understandings, by finding classroom time for deliberate work for understanding, not instead of other classroom activities but by exploiting normal classroom activities for that purpose (p. 121).

The working for understandings principle advocates understanding and appreciation of the language classroom rather than only focussing on problem-solving and change. In other words, an identification of problems and applying solutions to change teaching and learning practices through learning new techniques and applying them directly without understanding the life in the language classroom might not lead to continuous and sustainable development (Allwright, 2005). It is this emphasis on understanding rather than change that distinguishes EP from many other forms of classroom-based research and which make the experience of both teachers and learners a continuous social process rather than a mere problem-solving practice (Allwright, 2005). Based on this principle, I suggest that EP may help the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) to sustain their development because it encourages them to understand their classroom life rather than to identify and resolve, without that understanding immediate problems. When the LEFLUTs do not encounter problems, they might stop thinking and reflecting and thus stop developing or, using Allwright's term, burnout. However, more likely, they might encounter so many problems that do not lend themselves to obvious solutions that they burnout. In addition, unlike traditional approaches to research such as AR, the working for understanding principle implies that language teachers, as well as learners, explore the life of their language classroom to understand it without necessarily being able to change it (Allwright, 2005). Collegiality and mutual development have been implied already here and I shall now turn directly to these features.

3. Collegiality and mutual development

According to Allwright (2003), collegiality might be best achieved if teachers and learners cooperate and work for the development of each other as well as themselves. Collegiality

encourages participants to share the process and benefits of research assuming that what might help language teachers might help both language learners and other teachers in a continuous learning and development process (Hanks, 2015). As a result, exploratory practice (EP) strongly emphasises collaborative work and learning amongst teachers and learners through identifying and understanding puzzles and by sharing ideas (Hanks, 2017). The collaborative aspect embedded within collegiality and mutual interests links this principle with other collaborative CPD such as coaching, mentoring, collaboration and community of practice discussed in the previous sections. This collaborative and reflective process of EP can be promoted through the various collaborative and reflective activities outlined already, such as discussion groups, journals, observation or portfolios but none of this will be enough unless pedagogy and practice can be integrated and so I turn now to this.

4. Integrating pedagogy and practice

Exploratory practice (EP) suggests a linguistically-based approach to integrate the content of learning with classroom research, and to achieve this it uses normal classroom activities and material for the purpose of puzzling around and about language (Allwright, 2005). Instead of adding extra activities, EP uses ‘Potentially Exploitable Pedagogic Activities’ or PEPAs (Hanks, 2015). These PEPAs help learners to practise key language skills, develop teachers’ understandings about the complexity and challenges of language learning, support learners to become autonomous as they explain and resolve learning issues and enhance the teachers and learners’ interest, motivation and enjoyment of their teaching and learning experiences (Hanks, 2017).

Since the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) seem to be always busy, and many of the obstacles they face appear to be related to classrooms and materials, this principle suggests that the LEFLUTs might be able to adopt EP without adding demanding extra tasks to their work. For example, the LEFLUTs might implement EP to explore the suitability of their material and appropriacy of its content. The relevance of ELT material has always been a puzzle to Libyan EFL teachers since the 1950s (see Chapter Two) and the LEFLUTs could also implement EP to explore their students’ low aptitude and motivation. But EP also needs, according to the literature, to become a continuous activity and I now discuss this.

5. Make the work a continuous enterprise

According to Allwright (2005), making exploratory practice (EP) work a continuous enterprise draws on the principle that reflects the view that knowledge, as well as teacher professional development (PD), can never be final and will always need re-visiting and EP practitioners should be continuously reflecting and puzzling about the life of their classroom and profession (Allwright, 2005). While this initially seems to suggest a very onerous, time-consuming process, EP suggests a classroom instructional time-based research activity which offers more time and resources to do the research and recognises teachers as the owners and generators of knowledge (Hanks, 2015). Thus, this principle proposes a sustainable learning process through continuous reflection and collaboration among teachers, learners and educators (Hanks, 2015).

This last principle suggests a key feature of CPD that may well be a key concern for many LEFLUTs who often realise that they usually stop developing or burnout. Through these principles of EP, the LEFLUTs might be supported to sustain their development and continue learning as they puzzle around their classroom and PD concerns.

4.2.12 Section Summary

In this section, I presented some CPD models of or relevant to language teacher education, discussed their theoretical and practical principles, summarised their advantages and disadvantages and evaluated their relevance to the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) and their context. It was suggested that no single CPD model would be completely suitable for the LEFLUTs without adaptation. For example, the LEFLUTs need to be in control of the content, process and agenda of their learning and to be provided with appropriate support to construct their own learning which might be provided through coaching and mentoring and delivered within a community of practice. In addition, collaboration and reflection were also found to be key features of language teachers' professional development and sustainability of learning.

When they do not have enough support to develop their knowledge and improve their practice, communities of practice may provide opportunities for the LEFLUTs to collaborate and reflect on their experiences, develop their knowledge and improve their practice. This collaborative environment might also encourage the LEFLUTs to reflect on their experiences, sustain their development and continue improving. As the classroom environment and teaching environment is so challenging, the LEFLUTs might usefully be

expected to regularly encounter problems or puzzles that would require them to explore and understand their challenges better than they are currently, without support, able to do.

Having discussed the above CPD models and evaluated their principles and practices, in the next section I will focus on teacher training in Libya of both the Libyan EFL school teachers and LEFLUTs as this is a major contributor to the background of and need for the sort of CPD I shall propose in this study.

4.3 Teacher Training in Libya

In this section, I will present the types of INSET and pre-service training programmes that have been developed and implemented in Libya since the 1950s and evaluate their principles and practices based on the CPD literature of the previous section. In doing so, I will explore teacher training programmes for the Libyan English as Foreign Language (EFL) school teachers and the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs). This section is intended to provide the necessary context and understanding of the LEFLUTs' background knowledge and professional development, including previous teacher training programmes in Libya, it considers the key principles that might underpin appropriate CPD for the LEFLUTs.

4.3.1 Training Libyan English as Foreign Language (EFL) School Teachers

Knowledge of the teacher training or education programmes adopted in Libya from the 1950s to 1990s is limited due to the scarcity of resources and official governmental statistics. However, Barton (1968) reported that, in the 1960s, the Libyan Ministry of Education provided INSET programmes for Libyan English as Foreign Language (EFL) preparatory and secondary school teachers to conduct, organise and tutor INSET courses, and plan English Language Teaching (ELT) courses. In addition, sixty preparatory school teachers were sent to the USA to improve their English and train prospective Peace Corps Volunteers in elementary Arabic. Also, and in cooperation with the British Council, 30 preparatory school teachers received training in the UK (Barton, 1968). Clearly this was a sort of cascade programme as explained earlier in this chapter but, according to Barton (1968), these training programmes appeared to have failed to provide appropriate support for the Libyan EFL teachers and meet the participants' needs. Moreover, these INSET

programmes appeared to be based on the training model discussed in Section 4.2 above. First the primary focus of these programmes was on content knowledge (CK) including linguistic aspects of language and language skills, especially reading, grammar and vocabulary. During the 1960s, the norm for language teacher education was based on the training model (Freeman, 1989) which usually focused on linguistic and methodological aspects of ELT delivered by external experts to a group of teachers who are supposed to apply these skills into their own context (Freeman, 2002).

In the 1970s, the Libyan Ministry of Education launched four teacher training programmes and provided a five-year primary teaching programme and two-year and four-year training programmes for primary school teachers (Metz, 1989; Clark, 2004). Unlike the previous training programme, this INSET training programme was delivered through an award-bearing model (see Section 4.2.4 above). As noted, in the award-bearing model, the focus is usually on the preparation and training of teachers through the provision and completion of programmes of study usually validated by universities or other institutions (Day and Pennington, 1993). Although these programmes prepared thousands of teachers, like the training model, the award-bearing model appears to have been ineffective for Libyan teachers perhaps because they were based on training needs identified by external experts rather than on what the Libyan teachers themselves thought they needed (Day, 1989).

Despite its disadvantages, in the mid 1990s the award-bearing model was reintroduced in Libya through a network of institutes and colleges of teacher training and these aimed to develop the teacher's personality, on a scientific, educational, social, and professional level (Otman and Karlberg, 2007, p. 105). This award-bearing model provided training to Libyan EFL teachers on courses and subjects related to CK but neglected practical procedures and skills that might have helped teachers to improve their pedagogic practices and deliver ELT material effectively (see Chapter Two, Table One). Like the previous programmes, these award-bearing training programmes appear to have failed to provide enough support for Libyan EFL school teachers who continued to lack adequate or appropriate knowledge and skills of teaching, curriculum and technology (The Ministry of Education, 2008).

In the 2000s, the Libyan Ministry of Education established The General Centre for Teacher Training and introduced INSET and provided pre-service training programmes for elementary, preparatory and secondary school teachers. I was involved in these new training programmes as a teacher trainer from 2005 to 2006. I participated in an INSET

teacher training programme which aimed to refresh those EFL teachers who had stopped teaching after the English language was omitted from the school curriculum in the 1980s. I also participated in a pre-service school teacher training programme which aimed to prepare teachers from other disciplines, such as life and social sciences, to teach EFL in elementary schools. Regardless of their level and objectives and despite having different groups, levels and professional development (PD) needs, these two programmes lasted for everyone for three months and focused on CK because most participants seemed to have forgotten English or had no knowledge about English at all. This suggests that these training programmes drew on principles of the deficit model which assumes that the participants have deficiencies in their teacher knowledge base (TKB), namely CK, that requires remedies and attention before they could teach EFL in Libyan EFL schools (Day and Sachs 2005).

To sum up, teacher training programmes in Libya (with training, award-bearing and deficit models) appear to have been inappropriate for the Libyan EFL school teachers for many reasons. First, these models appear to have been introduced through transmissive approaches that reinforced commonly used and so familiar traditional teaching and learning. Chapters Two and Three suggested that the Quranic method encourages a transmissive approach to teaching and learning based on repetition, drilling and memorisation (Latiwish, 2003; Al Rifai, 2010; Najeeb, 2013). As a result, these training models appear to have failed to prepare Libya EFL teachers to implement ELT through more constructivist methodologies (Abukhattala, 2016; Aloreobi and Carey, 2017). In addition, these training models appear to lack most aspects of effective CPD activities such as collaboration, reflection and coaching. The Libyan EFL teachers seem to have been presented with a CK that they had no opportunities to reflect on and relate to their own knowledge base and they have been asked to teach their learners without being coached or mentored or even observed. Finally, the training models did not appear to have involved any form of exploratory practice but seem to have transmitted content through traditional individual approaches without necessarily thinking about the reality of classrooms or learners in Libya. Whether Libyan EFL school teachers receives training or not, some of them preferred to pursue further studies and to become LEFLUTs and so they brought, and still bring, their learning, teaching and training experiences and their beliefs and assumptions about ELT to universities. In the following section, I focus on the teacher training of these LEFLUTs.

4.3.2 Training the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs)

In Chapter Two, I presented a bibliography of the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers' (LEFLUTs) education and profession and suggested that they often start teaching at university without receiving any pre-service or INSET training. It was also suggested that the LEFLUTs' practice is usually based on their practical experience as both learners imitating their teachers and teachers learning from their own practice (Bukhatowa *et al.*, 2008; Elabbar, 2011; Suwaed, 2011). According to Lacey (2012), novice teachers' first years are characterised by survival, discovery, adaptation and learning experiences in which they often rely on trial and error to identify strategies that help them regardless of the efficiency of these practices. To this, I suggest that modelling oneself on other teachers or depending on one's experience alone is not enough to make teachers effective practitioners and to enhance learners' progress and achievement.

As part of the reforms introduced in the 2000s, the Libyan Ministry of Education introduced new resources for pedagogy through technology and internet (computers, smart boards) to support teachers in HEIs to improve their practice and enhance their teaching. Despite this, Kenan (2009) reported that the teachers' practice in HEIs often remained based on traditional approaches due to the lack of appropriate and adequate training on teaching and learning methodologies. This suggests that many, if not most, LEFLUTs do not receive any pre-service or INSET teacher training programmes, although some of them manage to teach and develop following their own paths (Kenan *et al.*, 2011). The LEFLUTs' teaching loads, research supervision, office hours, yearly publication demands and a one-year funded research project (Sabbatical Leave) could provide alternative opportunities for their professional development but this still means that they are working individually and making their own paths depending, often, on what they have seen other people do, found on the internet or read in books.

The LEFLUTs' situation and lack of training is similar to many other EFL teachers across the world and, commenting on the status quo, Parker (2004) states that:

the days of completely unqualified staff teaching languages to adults seems to be numbered, but there are still many staff with low-level qualifications and restricted access to INSET training (p. 17).

Similarly, the CPD literature suggests that professional development (PD) is a concern not only for the LEFLUTs but also for other teachers around the globe. So I am not suggesting that the LEFLUTs are necessarily any worse supported than other teachers but, based on the activities of the LEFLUTs and the context in which they practise teaching, there might be opportunities to develop appropriate CPD material for the LEFLUTs and to better support their PD. According to Freeman & Johnson (1998) teacher-learners perform their teaching, practice their knowledge and receive training in classrooms and schools. Allwright (2005) also states that the teaching context provides a valuable environment for research, investigation, development and change for both teachers and learners. Therefore, despite the lack of formal teacher training, the LEFLUTs' environment suggests that there could be opportunities for both formal and informal CPD activities through which the LEFLUTs could come together and work on their PD needs or solve some of the puzzles (or issues) they face. These CPD activities could be extremely important for many LEFLUTs who are currently often left alone without support but who would want to develop their knowledge, enhance their practice and continue learning. It is noteworthy that Suwaed (2011) reported that all the LEFLUTs who participated in her case study liked the idea of PD workshops and asked for similar opportunities in the future and this bodes well for my proposed CPD.

4.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented and discussed some CPD models and teacher training in Libya. In the first section, I defined CPD and distinguished between teacher training, education and development and highlighted that, although this study focuses on development, I will refer to training and education whenever it is relevant. In the second section, I presented and discussed the training, deficit, cascade, award-bearing, community of practice, coaching and mentoring, reflective practice, collaborative action research, and exploratory practice models and started to evaluate their relevance to the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) and their context. It was suggested that no single CPD model would be entirely relevant for the LEFLUTs without appropriate adaptation. Although training might be useful on certain techniques or presentations, such as aspects of communicative language teaching or reflective practice, training models may reinforce traditional teaching and learning approaches among the LEFLUTs. I also suggested that any CPD model developed and provided should involve reflective practice

accompanied by coaching or mentoring in order to promote constructive learning among the LEFLUTs and provide appropriate support for them.

Briefly, I then discussed and evaluated teacher training in Libya and suggested that the Libyan EFL school teacher training programmes appear to be ineffective due to their traditional approaches and lack of effective CPD features such as reflection, collaboration and coaching. I reiterated here that there is no training provided for the LEFLUTs at universities and suggested that this may have encouraged relatively standard traditional practices among the LEFLUTs. Importantly for my study, both sections here suggest that the LEFLUTs' situation offers opportunities for formal and informal CPD activities through which the LEFLUTs may collaborate and reflect on their teaching and learning experiences and support each other based on systematic approaches.

Based on insights from the previous chapters, the next chapter presents and discusses the research design and data collection tools for the elements of my study that sought to explore and to analyse the LEFLUTs needs, contexts and views.

Chapter 5 Methodology

5.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses and overviews the framework and methods of data collection and analysis used in this research. First, I define the main research paradigm used and discuss the rationale for the selection of that research paradigm and methodology. Then I discuss the iterative approach to data collection and analysis, the research tools and data analysis procedures. Having covered the research framework, then the chapter discusses the research triangulation, reliability and validity. Finally, in the last section, the chapter discusses ethical consideration and presents a chapter summary.

As noted throughout, the aim of this study was to develop a model of CPD for the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs). To achieve this, I developed a number of questions to elicit the LEFLUTs' views and perceptions about their professional development (PD) needs. These included three main questions:

1. What kind of knowledge do the LEFLUTs think they need?
2. What opportunities do the LEFLUTs have for professional learning?
3. What are the desirable characteristics of a CPD model?

These research questions will be addressed by developing the appropriate research tools that will formulate the needs analysis stage of this research which I discuss in detail in Section 5.5 below.

5.2 The Research Paradigm

A research paradigm influences the research framework and philosophical assumptions and guides the selection of the research tools. According to Guba and Lincoln (1994), a research paradigm is:

a set of basic beliefs (or metaphysics) that deals with ultimate or first principles. It represents a worldview that defines, for its holder, the nature of the world, the individual's place in it, and the range of possible relationships to that world and its parts (p. 107).

These belief systems, views and philosophies guide the research and are influenced by different research paradigms and driven by specific ontological and epistemological

assumptions (Willis *et al.*, 2007; Hays and Singh, 2012). Aiming to develop a CPD model for the LEFLUTs, I draw on an interpretivist research paradigm and a constructivist theoretical approach. However, it would be very hard to justify the theoretical and practical principles of the interpretivist paradigm without briefly exploring other research paradigms such as positivism and post-positivism.

According to Guba and Lincoln (1994) and Hays and Singh (2012), positivists aim to explain and empirically verify existing theories through, usually, formulating a hypothesis that can be tested and explained by quantitative measures, often through direct observation and involvement, and by generalising the findings to wider populations. In contrast, postpositivists argue that knowledge cannot ever be completely and objectively understood through measurements and observation, and theories can only be falsified rather than verified (Gratton and Jones, 2010). Although still popular in many fields, both positivism and postpositivism have been criticised for their assumptions that natural and social phenomena can be studied and understood by applying the same set of rules and laws and hence methods as by scientists (Bryman, 2003). In addition, positivists and postpositivists have been criticised for their view that researchers, even scientists, are not influenced by these phenomena or other related elements (Bryman, 2003). The criticism of both the positivists and postpositivists' philosophies and assumptions led to the development of an interpretivist paradigm. According to Schwandt (1998), interpretivists attempt to investigate social phenomena in order to obtain meanings and improve understandings and to provide explanations that will include the researchers' experience, the participants' views and the particular context of the study.

The brief definitions of the above three main research paradigms: positivism, postpositivism, and interpretivism suggest that different research designs will be based on different research philosophies (paradigms) that impact the researchers' choice of methodology, design and research tools. The choice of research paradigms also, importantly, must 'fit' the research question and topic of research. For this study, I found that the interpretivist paradigm would be the most suitable to explore the LEFLUTs' views and perceptions about their professional development (PD) needs and develop a CPD model for them. In the light of their philosophies, both positivism and postpositivism paradigms explore empirical evidence about which there are definite answers whereas there are no definite answers for my study. As I am exploring the LEFLUTs' attitudes and perceptions, it would be very difficult to find hard evidence or a single 'truth' for these. They could best be explored by interpreting what the LEFLUTs say and think or how they

behave and by accepting that my interpretations will be limited. Moreover, this approach considers the researchers' views and experiences as essential as those of the participants as the researcher has to make sense, to try to understand and explain the given phenomena and does so based on the idea that there is no single reality or 'truth'. So, while this research explores and values the LEFLUTs' views and perceptions about their PD needs, it will attempt to elicit and then to consider various views and perceptions from LEFLUT participants that might explain their reactions to PD and help to inform my CPD developments.

Having presented and discussed the rationale for the choice of my research paradigm, I will now I put this into practice by outlining the research methods and tools I used, starting with a discussion of the qualitative methods I used.

5.3 Qualitative Research Methods

The interpretivist paradigm discussed above has embodied within it the idea that qualitative research is often best suited for such a study. According to Bradley (1997), qualitative research focuses on understandings, views, perceptions, experiences and beliefs of the people involved in order to propose possible ways to help them improve their situations. Qualitative research is a very useful instrument for data collection that describes and interprets given situations through providing "in-depth views, perceptions and beliefs from the view point of the people involved" and attempts to make their situation better (Flick *et al.*, 2004, p. 3). O'Donoghue (2006) adds that qualitative research explores the views, perceptions, attitudes, behaviours and experiences of individuals through various tools such as interviews, focus groups, observation and fieldnotes to understand what others think about and how they perceive their situation. The above characteristics of qualitative research suggest that within my overall interpretative approach qualitative research methods would best suit this study and help me to explore the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers' (LEFLUTs) views and perceptions about their professional development (PD) needs, to understand their practice from their own point of view and to develop an appropriate CPD model for them. As Macdonald and Headlam (2008) put it:

... qualitative research is concerned with a quality of information, attempts to gain an understanding of the underlying reasons and motivations for actions and establishes how people interpret their experiences and the world around them. Qualitative methods provide insights into the setting of a problem, generating ideas and/or hypotheses (p. 8).

In addition, and in keeping with an interpretive paradigm, qualitative research studies phenomena in their natural world where researchers gather data about lived experiences of people and work face to face with them (Rossman and Rallis, 2011). Accordingly, as qualitative data is obtained in the real situation of the problem, the researcher's own reflection and opinion play a key role in interpreting the data and presenting the findings (Flick *et al.*, 2004). Being at the centre of the research process, the researcher becomes the tool for data collection which provides opportunities for in-depth understanding of the situation, a thorough interpretation of data and a comprehensible presentation of findings (Roller and Lavrakas, 2015). Therefore, in this study, being a LEFLUT myself, I will reflect on my own experience and employ it to interpret the data and present the findings. I do not pretend that I am a 'neutral' researcher. Although this might raise concerns about bias in data collection and interpretation, I am very aware that I should not manipulate the research data or its findings. Accordingly, I will interpret the data as it is expressed by the participants but at the same time reflect on my experience as a LEFLUT in an attempt to provide deeper understandings and explanations of the phenomena.

The presentation of the research framework, paradigm and methodology suggests that the research design involves a unique recurrent process of going forward and backward in data collection and analysis. This recurrent feature of research design is called iterative research and I will discuss this in the next section.

5.4 Iterative Data Collection and Analysis

According to Urquhart (2000), during iterative data collection and analysis, codes, categories and themes may evolve and change as researchers move through the various stages of their research process. The insights from the literature, further readings and other data sources may also affect the research theoretical framework because new insights and ideas may emerge and develop after each stage of the research process (Urquhart, 2000).

This study aims to develop a CPD model for the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs), and to do so, it needed to apply appropriate research tools. So, I explored the CPD literature and identified key CPD models (training, collaborative and reflective CPD models) and effective CPD features (collaboration, reflection, sustainability, coaching and mentoring) as discussed in Chapter Four. The CPD literature informed the design and content of my research tools and guided the research process. Based on the CPD literature, I decided to explore the LEFLUTs' views about their

PD needs through scenarios. Scenarios are short surveys that tell a story and ask the participant to comment. In these scenarios, I used stories that could elicit the LEFLUTs' views on several aspects of their knowledge base and CPD. Then I realised that the scenarios had not elicited all the information I needed from the LEFLUTs. As a result, I decided to involve some of the LEFLUTs in a focus group that focused on specific areas of CPD activities and features. A focus group is a form of interview conducted with a group of participants rather than individuals and with discussion focussed on a specific topic (Kitzinger, 1995). Having finished these two stages, then I decided to observe a CPD course in action and gather fieldnotes on what it could offer for my learning as I developed the LEFLUTs' CPD model. Fieldnotes are information written or recorded while observing a situation. I discuss all these three data collection tools in more depth in the next section below, but they are mentioned here to explain the iterative nature of this study.

The iterative methodology means that the data is collected and analysed at one stage, and the result is used to develop another research tool or stage and obtain more data. The process of data collection and analysis was flexible so that I could obtain as much information as possible about the LEFLUTs' PD needs. According to Srivastava and Hopwood (2009), the role of iteration is not :

... a repetitive mechanical task but a deeply reflexive process. It is key to sparking insight and developing meaning. Reflexive iteration is at the heart of visiting and revisiting the data and connecting them with emerging insights, progressively leading to refined focus and understandings (p. 77).

To sum up, the above iterative research methodology was the result of the recurrent data collection and analysis of CPD literature, scenarios, focus group and fieldnotes. In the following section, I will present and discuss these research tools and demonstrate the above iterative research methodology.

5.5 Needs Analysis

5.5.1 Introduction

Having surveyed the CPD literature and identified key issues, I decided to use needs analysis and identify the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) professional development (PD) needs. Following Hutchinson and Waters, (1989), needs analysis involves the identification of the learning needs of a given group in relation to three areas: necessities (what learners require so that they function effectively in

the target situation), lacks (what the learners already know and what their present level lacks) and wants (what the learners say they need/want for themselves). According to Brown (1995), needs analysis comprises:

the activities involved in gathering information that will serve as the basis for developing a curriculum that will meet the learning needs of a particular group of students (p. 35).

In this study, the needs analysis focuses on what knowledge and skills the LEFLUTs have, what knowledge and skills they think they need and what knowledge and skills would improve their practice. But needs analysis is a complex process that explores the learning and PD needs of teachers and requires deep investigation of the teachers' situation and their current practice and identification of the best ways to meet those needs (Bubb, 2005). In this study, needs analysis will be conducted with two qualitative research tools: scenarios and focus groups, which I present next.

5.5.2 Scenarios

Scenarios have been used for data collection in qualitative research and have been found a useful tool (Finch, 1987; Hazel, 1996; Hill, 1997; Carroll *et al.*, 2005). Finch (1987) describes scenarios as short stories about hypothetical individuals and situations to which the participants respond and comment on. Hughes (1998, p. 282) also defines scenarios as “stories about individuals and situations which make reference to important points in the study of perceptions, beliefs, and attitudes”. In this study, I developed ten scenarios based on stories and characters that represent and reflect a hypothetical Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) and his/her teaching situation (see Appendix Three). The developed stories were based on insights from the CPD literature, my experience as a LEFLUT and issues I thought might be common to the research participants.

According to Hazel (1996), reading scenarios and responding to direct questions give the respondents an opportunity to express their views and beliefs with confidence and freedom. Using scenarios as a research tool elicits raw data from the participants about their views, attitudes and beliefs, provides helpful stories and situations that trigger authentic responses from the participants and investigates issues from the view point of people involved (Hazel, 1996; Hill, 1997; Hughes, 1998). In addition, scenarios are less expensive and less time consuming than other research tools such as observation; they quickly generate considerable data from a large participant group, act as a stimulus for focus group

methodology, do not require the participants to have in depth knowledge about the topic being explored, and exploit both realistic and unrealistic events and experiences quote (Hughes and Huby, 2002).

Scenarios were chosen for this study to provide insightful data about the LEFLUTs' professional development (PD) needs based on their own views. They are powerful instruments that encourage the research participants to speak and express their views specially when cultural issues are concerned (Hughes and Huby, 2002). This suggests that scenarios can be very advantageous for this study because the LEFLUTs usually do not feel comfortable to speak to researchers face-to-face or to have their teaching observed. With scenarios, these LEFLUTs might become more confident and comfortable to express their views more freely. Secondly, in this study scenarios will explore the LEFLUTs' views and perceptions and become a stimulus for the focus group discussion. Thirdly, scenarios can improve the quality of data by reducing biasing or the influence of the researcher on the desired responses and, importantly, by taking the focus off the participants if they might feel uncomfortable or hesitant to express their own views immediately. Participants using my scenarios were asked their views on those scenarios before answering questions from their own personal viewpoints (Hughes and Huby, 2002). The effectiveness of scenarios as a surveying tool of views and perceptions is also supported by similar research studies involving LEFLUTs in which scenarios had been used and found to be very useful and powerful instruments. For example, Elabbar (2011) used scenarios in his study to investigate LEFLUTs' knowledge, views and cultural influences that determine and affect their teaching practice and decision making in the classroom. Elabbar also investigated what knowledge those teachers possess and what methods and approaches they use in their teaching. Elabbar's scenarios provided insightful information about the LEFLUTs and teaching culture, some of which I have cited throughout this thesis.

Despite the above advantages, there are some methodological concerns that need to be considered when employing scenarios in research methodology. The first pitfall of scenarios is their artificiality as they do not contain the full picture (Abbott and Sapsford, 1997). To tackle this issue, I will reflect on my own experience as a LEFLUT, recall discussion with my colleagues and try to develop stories that are as realistic as possible. Secondly, although scenarios explore knowledge, attitudes and opinions rather than behaviours, critics argue that as scenarios are stimulations of reality, they are not as effective as observation as data collection tools (Wilson and While, 1998). In this study,

scenarios will be employed to explore the participants' views, perceptions and knowledge in relation to CPD and teacher knowledge base (TKB) rather than their behaviours and this is in keeping with an interpretivist study. I am not convinced that observing the LEFLUTs would have given me 'the truth'. In addition, I have limited access to the LEFLUTs in their workplace settings which suggests that scenarios would be more effective and more appropriate for my study than observation which usually explores behaviours through direct contact with participants. Finally, Azman and Mahadhir (2017, p. 29) argue that there is the issue of validity and reliability of scenarios in "relation to their appropriateness, relevance, and realism, to ensure the interpretations and responses they elicit reflect actual behaviour". In this study, this point was addressed by employing scenarios with focus group methodology which would ensure both validity and reliability of findings but with regard to the interpretivist approach I used, and I discuss this in Section 5.7 of this chapter. A further check used was to link the findings from the scenarios with the data from the focus group.

The ten developed scenarios in this study were formulated from two sources. First, I surveyed the CPD literature and developed scenarios that would reflect the key features of effective CPD and the components of TKB discussed in Chapter Four. Then, I linked the scenarios to my own experience as a LEFLUT. The use of these two sources to develop scenarios is also supported in the literature of qualitative research as cited in Flakerud (1979), Giovannoni and Becerra (1979) and Wilson and While (1998). On designing the scenarios, I tried to avoid texts that were so short that they might have elicited brief or imprecise responses or texts that were so long that they might have generated irrelevant data (Pao *et al.*, 1997; Wilson and While, 1998; Wallace, 2001). Meanwhile, the participants were asked to respond to questions such as "What would you do if you were in this situation? Why do you think this teacher reacted in this way? Do you do something like this?". As the scenarios are based on classroom practices and discussions between LEFLUTs, the participants' responses to the same scenario were expected to reveal different views and features of CPD and components of TKB. It is important to consider this point here as the classification of the ten scenarios and what they aim to elicit is not limited to what is mentioned here.

Scenario One (*The Audiolingual Classroom*)

This scenario explores the participants' general pedagogical knowledge (GPK) discussed in Chapter Two. GPK refers to the knowledge of general theories of learning and teaching,

learners and classroom instruction and management (Grossman and Richert, 1988). More precisely, Scenario One explores the participants' knowledge of the teacher-centred methodologies discussed in Chapter Two. Teacher-centred methodologies are those methodologies in which teachers control the teaching and learning process (Dart and Clarke, 1991). Since the aim of this study is to develop an appropriate CPD model for the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs), I decided to explore their GPK and consider the opportunities that might help the LEFLUTs to adopt more learner-centred methodologies in which the learner becomes the centre of the teaching and learning process (Collins and O'Brien, 2003). GPK is only one component of the language teachers' TKB, and to become effective language teachers, the LEFLUTs would also require pedagogical content knowledge (PCK), which is addressed in the next scenario.

Scenario Two (*The experienced LEFLUT*)

In this scenario, the focus is on the participants' pedagogical content knowledge (PCK), which refers to the teachers' knowledge and skill of the best ways of using classroom teaching material (Richards, 1998). This PCK is constructed and influenced by different entities of teacher's knowledge and teachers' beliefs including methodologies, material, learners and context. Research on language teacher education suggests that language teachers teach from a teacher knowledge base (TKB) that has been developed through their educational experiences as teachers and learners of the language themselves and through their personal experiences as learners, teachers and members of diverse communities outside the educational setting (Johnston and Goettsch, 2000; Freeman, 2002; Johnson, 2006). Although the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) do a course on methodology in the final year of their undergraduate studies, this course appears to be inadequate to equip them with the needed knowledge and skills to teach effectively. According to Stuart and Thurlow (2000), undergraduate methodological programmes often fail to adequately prepare novice teachers to face the challenge of classroom dynamics and this may encourage these novice teachers to develop a TKB based on practical knowledge gained from their teaching and personal experiences and beliefs. So, this scenario is designed to help explore the LEFLUTs' PCK and identify its elements and sources.

Scenario Three (*Informal Meeting*)

Scenario Three investigates the participants' knowledge of curriculum which refers to the teachers' knowledge and understanding of concepts and principles of materials and the way they are organised and the extent to which they are presented to learners in a comprehensible way (Shulman, 1986; Even, 1993). These English Language Teaching (ELT) materials can provide a systematic structure for the teaching and learning process and an effective environment for the development of teachers and improvement of the learners' outcomes (Hutchinson and Torres, 1994). In many English as Foreign Language (EFL) contexts, the ELT material provides the only source of language input and communicative environment for learners (Crawford, 2002) but in Libya it is often used by many Libyan EFL teachers and students as a means for passing exams rather than a source of language input (Orafi and Borg, 2009; Al Rifai, 2010). In addition, Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) may prepare their own teaching material using different sources in order to suit their learners and context and based on their own beliefs and experiences (Elabbar, 2011; Suwaed, 2011; Abosnan, 2016). Therefore, curriculum knowledge would be a key element of the LEFLUTs' knowledge base that might help them maintain effective classroom instruction. However, dealing with the material and effectively designing and implementing lessons can be a daunting task for many novice language teachers (Kaufmann *et al.*, 2002). As a result, it is extremely important to explore the LEFLUTs' knowledge of curriculum and decide what knowledge and skills could help them to effectively adapt and prepare their material.

As our current knowledge of the LEFLUTs and the sources and components of their knowledge base are very limited, it is important to explore most of the teacher knowledge domains presented in Chapter Three. Therefore, in addition to general pedagogical knowledge (GPK), pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) and knowledge of curriculum, the next scenario focuses on the LEFLUTs' knowledge about learners.

Scenario Four (*Literature Class*)

The story in this scenario tries to elicit Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers' (LEFLUTs) knowledge about learners which explains how learners with diverse interests and abilities learn particular topics and enables teachers to support learners to learn these topics effectively (Shulman, 1986). Research on students' learning indicates that different learners follow diverse ways to the same or similar learning goals (McEwan and Bull, 1991).

Consequently, teachers should know their learners in order to make the material comprehensible and accessible to them (Fernández-Balboa and Stiehl, 1995). Previous studies reported that the LEFLUTs have adequate content knowledge but not as much other types of knowledge (Elabbar, 2011; Suwaed, 2011; Abosnan, 2016). It follows that the LEFLUTs seem to implement their material and follow similar instructional routines without identifying differences between learners who follow diverse paths to learning and differ from each other in respect to learning styles, learning strategies and effective factors (see Chapter Three). Oxford and Lavine (1992, p. 38) define learning styles as “the general approaches for example, global or analytic, auditory or visual that students use in acquiring a new language”. Learning strategies are steps taken by language learners to improve their learning; they include tools for active and self-directed learning and are very important for developing the learners’ communicative competence (Oxford, 1990). Affective factors are internal and external variables that affect the learners and their learning such as attitudes, motivation, intelligence and age (Gardner and MacIntyre, 1993b, 1993a). Adequate teachers’ knowledge about learners plays a key role in effective teaching practices because it is necessary for the appropriate adaptation of GPK and PCK and successful implementation of material and adoption of methodology.

However, even when teachers have adequate knowledge about learners, they would still need knowledge about how to control and organise the students in terms of their learning differences. This knowledge is related to classroom management which is addressed in Scenario Five.

Scenario Five (*The Linguistics Class*)

At this stage, the scenarios move from specific to more general dimensions of classroom teaching: teaching methodology and classroom representation, material, learners and classroom management. According to Brophy (1988), classroom management refers to:

... actions taken to create and maintain a learning environment conducive to attainment of the goals of instruction (arranging the physical environment of the classroom, establishing rules and procedures, maintaining attention to lessons and engagement in academic activities) (p. 2).

It is assumed that novice teachers may need to achieve a minimum level of classroom management competencies and skills before they can develop other aspects of instruction (Berliner, 1988). According to Marx *et al.* (1999), classroom management plays a vital role in classroom interaction and determines how successful or unsuccessful a lesson might be.

In short, classroom management includes more than various seating arrangements and a well-planned lesson; it is about rules and procedures that determine the role of teacher and learners and make the classroom a safe and appropriate environment for learning (Marzano *et al.*, 2005). As noted earlier in this thesis, the university undergraduate teacher preparation programmes are very often inadequate to prepare the Libyan EFL teachers with all the skills and knowledge required for effective teaching, including classroom management. Libyan EFL teachers usually struggle with managing their classroom when they become Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) and so, classroom management would be a significant aspect of the LEFLUTs' general pedagogical knowledge (GPK) and a core component of their knowledge base that needs to be seriously considered.

Having explored the participants' teacher knowledge base (TKB) and identified its components, the other five scenarios focus on the participants' professional development (PD) needs and effective features of CPD: collaboration, reflection, sustainability, coaching and mentoring identified in the CPD literature (see Chapter Four).

Scenario Six (*Departmental Progress Meeting*)

This scenario explores the participants' views and perception about their needs in a CPD programme and what they require to improve their teaching. In many English as Foreign Language (EFL) contexts, when language teachers start their teaching profession, they realise that they are not adequately prepared for the reality of classroom and discover that the knowledge and skills they learned during their teacher preparation courses do not fit their context (Hedgcock, 2002; Freeman, 2002). Among the Libyan society, there is a common belief that being a qualified teacher means holding a qualification or a certificate in a subject area regardless of the teaching knowledge and skills and the actual practice of that teacher (see Chapter Two). However, English Language Teaching (ELT) became an educational specialisation that requires a specialised teacher knowledge base (TKB) obtained through both academic study and practical experiences and devotes to provide language teachers with professional development (PD) and qualifications (Richards, 2008). I hoped that through this scenario I would be able to explore the LEFLUTs' views and beliefs about CPD activities and find out whether or not the participants thought they needed to improve.

On exploring the participants' views about having CPD activities, the next scenario addresses collaboration as one key feature of effective CPD.

Scenario Seven (*A LEFLUTs' Meeting*)

This scenario focuses on collaboration among the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) as a CPD approach to develop their knowledge and improve their practice. Johnson (2000) describes collaboration as any formal or informal activities among teachers based on meaningful exchanges of ideas and experiences about teaching, learning, pedagogy, learners, materials and their context with others. In Chapter Three, it was suggested that the LEFLUTs' teaching and learning culture, which is often based on teacher-centred methodologies, appears to encourage individual practices and restrict cooperation among them. Teaching is generally described as a highly individualistic profession where decision making is isolated and collaboration is limited (Lortie, 1977). Even when collaboration occurs, it is often limited to an exchange of daily anecdotes or discussion on daily issues to improve practice (Hargreaves and Dawe, 1990). Systematic collaborative activities can help language teachers to become less isolated and more focused on their students' academic and behavioural achievement than when they work alone (Erb, 1995). In addition, collaborative activities can increase the opportunities for language teachers to explore their understanding of teaching and learning and enrich their teacher knowledge base (TKB) (Bailey *et al.*, 1996). Therefore, collaboration, which is considered a key element for effective language teaching and learning practice, could support the LEFLUTs to enhance their learning, develop their knowledge and improve their practice.

Beside collaboration, it is also suggested that learning is facilitated, and knowledge is constructed, when there are opportunities for language teachers to reflect on their teaching and learning experiences.

Scenario Eight (*The Grammar and Writing Teachers*)

Scenario Eight addresses the participants' perceptions and views about reflection which is defined as the language teachers' ability to "subject their own beliefs of teaching and learning to a critical analysis and taking more responsibility for their actions" (Farrell, 1999, p. 157). Schon (1983) considers reflection a cornerstone and a prerequisite to behavioural and cognitive change and PD. For language teachers, reflection is considered a key component of their PD and a fundamental feature of effective CPD as it helps

language teachers to adopt reflective and critical thinking and avoid impulse, intuition or routine based practices (Richards, 1990). In addition, Pennington (1992) and Korthagen (1993) found that reflection could improve language classroom teaching and students' achievements, increase confidence among language teachers and learners and increase self-motivation of teachers and learners.

In Chapter Three, it was suggested that although the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) may often collaborate and reflect on their experiences, they usually do so in unsystematic and unstructured ways and seem to be unaware of the underlying principles and benefits of systematic reflection and collaboration. Therefore, Scenario Eight explores the LEFLUTs' views and approaches to reflection so that more systematic approaches might be introduced to them. Reflection is very important for the LEFLUTs who lack CPD and require appropriate support because it could support them to evaluate their teaching and learning practices and adapt them accordingly. However, to encourage the LEFLUTs to collaborate and reflect effectively, there should be enough opportunities for them to help each other and share their experiences and concerns in an effective and safe environment that promotes collaborative and reflective teaching and learning cultures.

One way to encourage language teachers to collaborate and reflect on their experiences is to involve them in communities of practice and these are addressed in the next scenario.

Scenario Nine (*End of Terms Meeting*)

In this scenario, I explore the participants' views and perceptions about communities of practice which Lave and Wenger (1991) describe as groups of people with shared problems and goals who formally or informally work together to discuss common issues or meet common goals. According to Feiman-Nemser and Floden (1986) and Skrtic *et al.* (1996), when teachers work alone they very often draw on their personal, professional and educational experiences to solve and react to classroom and situational problems. When the practical knowledge and experience do not help, these teachers may standardise their practice, resist new innovations and techniques and blame their learners for problems (Rosenholtz, 1989; Skrtic *et al.*, 1996). In contrast, communities of practice provide opportunities for teachers to share ideas, take risks in the classroom and reflect on their practices and support them to develop a common teacher knowledge base (TKB) required for designing and adapting materials and approaches that suit both the students and their teaching and learning context (Brownell *et al.*, 1997).

It was suggested that the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) have adequate content knowledge (CK) which they implement through predictable teacher-centred methodologies due to their individual teaching and learning cultures (see Chapter Two). Since the LEFLUTs are usually left without appropriate support or training, communities of practice might support the LEFLUTs to develop an effective TKB and enhance their teaching practice. Communities of practice, such as discussion groups, might also provide the LEFLUTs with appropriate support through coaching and mentoring. Moreover, in Chapters Two and Three, it was suggested that the LEFLUTs' TKB appears to be based on and influenced by their personal, educational and professional experiences. When the LEFLUTs engage in communities of practice, they might adapt or change their practices and learning approaches based on shared experiences and feedback from peers and colleagues.

So far, scenarios, Seven, Eight and Nine focused on collaboration, reflection and communities of practice as key features of effective professional development. However, these features would be ineffective and inadequate unless they become regular and sustained over time. Therefore, the last scenario addressed the LEFLUTs' views and understanding about sustainability of knowledge, practice and development.

Scenario Ten (*Professional Development Plans*)

Scenario Ten focuses on the participants' views and perceptions about sustainability as an approach that could support them to cope with the changing dynamic of the English Language Teaching (ELT) classroom and continue developing. Sustainability refers to learning and development that occur, continue to occur, and endure over time using available resources and facilities (Hargreaves and Fink, 2003). According to Hargreaves and Fink (2006, p. 30), sustainability refers not only to whether something will last but also to the development of that thing now and in the future. It enables individuals and institutions to respond autonomously to changing contexts on regular bases (Zehetmeier and Krainer, 2011). Even though the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers' (LEFLUTs) reflection on their personal, educational and professional experiences could encourage them to sustain their professional development (PD), they may be better equipped with systematic approaches to face challenges of teaching and learning based on a more sustained and systematic approach to PD.

In previous chapters, it was suggested that the LEFLUTs very often lack adequate experience and their knowledge and practice often declines due to lack of sustainability. As a result, sustainability might support the LEFLUTs to continuously adapt their material and techniques and help them to manage their complex classroom teaching environment. According to Ball and Cohen (1999), unless teachers have opportunities for sustainable PD, they are unlikely to be able to adapt their material and methodology to meet the needs of their learners and suit their learning context. In addition, successful implementation of innovations requires sustained collaboration and reflection at the personal, interpersonal, group and organisational levels of educational institutions (Miles, 1993). Such collaborative and reflective practices can lead to a positive impact on the language teachers' practice and development through continuous collaborative and reflective enquiries and problem-solving activities that sustain their development.

In addition to the PD needs and effective features of CPD, the developed scenarios will also attempt to answer the first and second research questions. For example, research question one: "What kind of knowledge do the LEFLUTs think they need?" is addressed by Scenarios One, Two, Three, Four, and Five whereas research question two: "What opportunities do the LEFLUTs have for professional learning?" is addressed by Scenarios Six, Seven, Eight, Nine and Ten.

When I received the completed scenarios with the participants' responses, I conducted initial data analysis and found that there was a gap in the information about the LEFLUTs' CPD activity, especially the CPD content and delivery. At this stage, and as noted earlier, I decided to involve some of the participants in a focus group discussion to gather more data about the content and delivery of their CPD material and I explain this below.

5.5.3 Focus Groups

Focus groups, also sometimes called group interviews, are data collection tools that involve a researcher and a group of participants, often in a follow-up discussion about the research issue. According to Morgan (1988), focus groups are:

... a form of group interview, though not in the sense of a backwards and forwards between interviewer and group. Rather, the reliance is on the interaction within the group who discuss a topic supplied by the researcher yielding a collective rather than an individual view (p. 9).

Focus groups are useful tools that are often used in mixed methods research and after surveys to help researchers to develop themes and questions, obtain data from different

populations, elicit data on attitudes, views and perceptions, explore issues with wider coverage, obtain feedback on data gathered by other tools and clarify or elaborate issues or topics covered in the surveys (Robson, 2002; Bogdan and Biklen, 2007). In addition, Punch (2009, p. 147) states that another advantage of focus group is the direct use of group interaction in order to gather data and insights that might not be likely obtained without interaction generated by the groups. In this study, the focus group was used to follow up themes from the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers' (LEFLUTs) views and perceptions about their professional development (PD) needs through scenarios and gather more specific insights from the LEFLUTs as a group on the content and delivery of their CPD material. The participants' responses to the focus group provided useful data about the LEFLUTs' CPD activities and mode of delivery and confirmed the themes that I had identified in the CPD literature and found in the scenarios: collaboration, reflection, sustainability, coaching and mentoring. I note this here simply to show what the focus group added to my study and understanding of the LEFLUTs' CPD activities, and I shall present and discuss the findings from the focus group data in Chapter Six.

The focus group, which lasted 30 minutes, was audio-recorded to ensure that I had a record of the thoughts and comments from the LEFLUTs during the discussion. In addition, recording the focus group helped me to focus on the course of conversation and the interaction between the participants, to comment on the participants' responses, and to direct the discussion whenever it was necessary. According to Bell (2014), recording focus groups can be useful to check:

the wording of any statement you might wish to quote, to allow you keep eye contact with your interviewee, to help you look interested – and to make sure that what you write is accurate (p. 184).

The audio-recorded focus group was conducted with four of the participants who responded to the scenarios and happened to be in the UK during the research. I provide a full account of the participants in Chapter Six where the data is analysed. Based on the participants' responses to the scenarios, I developed four prompt questions that would hopefully elicit the required information about the LEFLUTs' CPD material and help me to keep the discussions focused on the key issues. These prompts were:

1. your views and perception about the skills or knowledge the LEFLUTs need to develop.
2. your views and perceptions about the delivery of CPD material: taught course, workshops, etc.

3. your views about the features you wish to include in CPD material.
4. your views and perceptions about the timing of CPD material.

The focus group provided an opportunity for me and the LEFLUTs to engage in a form of community of learning and helped me to explore the LEFLUTs' views and perceptions about the content and delivery of their CPD material in a friendly and safe environment. However, on many occasions the participants talked about other issues and personal experiences related to their classroom teaching such as students' motivation, traditional approaches to teaching and the education system and these were mostly irrelevant to the aim of the focus group. As a moderator, I tried to bring the discussion back on track and encourage other participants to take part and express their views. In addition, some participants did not seem to be happy to talk about their experiences whereas others were more open to talk about everything. Thus, I tried to balance the discussion and encourage everyone to talk and express their opinions.

Having surveyed the CPD literature and identified the LEFLUTs' PD needs through the scenarios and focus group, I then decided to observe a CPD programme in action and gather fieldnotes. I had never seen or experienced a CPD course in action and so was fortunate to be allowed to observe a CPD course to see how CPD looked in practice. I did not attend the three CPD sessions as a 'researcher' looking for data but, instead, as an interested learner looking for ideas. Fieldnote data was the last research tool for data collection in this study and I discuss this below.

5.5.4 Fieldnotes

The final stage of data collection in this study involved gathering fieldnotes from a CPD programme in action. Bogdan and Biklen (2007) define fieldnotes as:

„the written account of what the researcher hears, sees, experiences, and thinks in the course of collecting and reflecting on the data in a qualitative study (p. 110-11).

By collecting fieldnotes, researchers become close to other people involved in the research in order to understand their experiences and attitudes through detailed description of situations and events (Emerson *et al.*, 1995). My situation was slightly different. I gathered fieldnotes from observing a CPD programme for new lecturers at a UK university to see how CPD activities looked in action, to explore what key areas of teacher knowledge base

(TKB) were covered and to identify relevant and applicable CPD features that I might apply to the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs).

Wiersma and Jurs (2005) distinguish between two forms of fieldnotes: descriptive and reflective. Descriptive field notes, which usually consist of unorganised written narratives containing abbreviations, shorthand phrases, diagrams and arrows, describe what, when, where and under what conditions things happen. In contrast, reflective fieldnotes require the interpretation of the things listened to or observed and involve giving explanation, asking questions and giving possible reasons on why certain things happen (Wiersma and Jurs, 2005). In this study, I used both forms of fieldnotes. First, the CPD programme was described and outlined: the content, people involved, its objectives and when and where it was delivered (see Appendix Fifteen). Then, the written fieldnote data was analysed, interpreted and summarised. The data from the fieldnotes was analysed and related to the LEFLUTs' responses to the scenarios and focus group. In doing this, I compared the data with the themes identified in the CPD literature, scenarios and focus group and looked for other themes that I may have not recognised or identified in the CPD literature or LEFLUTs' data.

In addition to taking different forms, fieldnote data can be obtained using different formats and types including audio or written notes, drawings presented as logs, cards or diaries (Punch and Oancea, 2014). I used simple written notes to record the fieldnotes because the aim of these was to gather additional information on CPD activities and note general aspects of the CPD programme rather than to evaluate it. The fieldnotes provided me with opportunities to explore some CPD activities in action and consider their relevance to the LEFLUTs. The fieldnotes also helped me to experience the key themes identified in the CPD literature in practice: collaboration, reflection, coaching and mentoring. In addition, the fieldnotes helped me to think about and plan my own approach to integrate the key CPD features in the LEFLUTs' CPD material which I present in Chapter Seven.

Having discussed my research tools: scenarios, focus groups and fieldnotes, the next sections focus on issues of trustworthiness and goodness in qualitative research methods. One of these issues is triangulation which I address in the next section.

5.6 Triangulation

Decrop (1999, p. 158) describes triangulation as “looking at the same phenomenon, or research question, from more than one source of data”. Triangulation has been used in the social sciences and proved to be useful technique to ensure the trustworthiness of qualitative data collected and analysed in an interpretive approach because it limits personal and methodological biases and increases the potential for theoretical generalization and expressiveness of data obtained through different sources (Denzin, 1970; Flick *et al.*, 2004). In social and educational research, Denzin (1970) suggested four fundamental types of triangulation:

1. triangulation of data in which the researcher uses different sources of data over different time spaces, settings, and participants
2. triangulation of the researchers in which more than one investigator is involved in the study
3. triangulation of theory in which data is approached with multiple perspectives and hypotheses
4. triangulation of methodology in which the researchers employ different qualitative and quantitative methods or a mixture of both to obtain their data.

In this study, triangulation was addressed by using the data and method of triangulation summarised above. In the triangulation of data, I used both primary and secondary sources of data. The primary data included the scenarios, focus group and fieldnotes discussed in the previous sections whereas the secondary data involved the CPD literature discussed in Chapter Four. Additionally, the triangulation of methodology involved the employment of multiple qualitative methods: scenarios, focus groups and fieldnotes. Based on the data and emerging themes from all three research tools and sources, I prepared and proposed CPD material for the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) this is how triangulation was demonstrated in this study.

In addition to the trustworthiness, the current research needed also to address two vital characteristics of goodness in qualitative research. These are reliability and validity, or their equivalents, which I cover in the next section.

5.7 Reliability and Validity

According to Guba (1981) and Morrow (2005), reliability deals with the way in which the research should be consistent if repeated with the same people, on the same issue and in a similar context. To Brown and Rodgers (2002, p. 241), reliability refers to the “degree to which the results of a study (such as interview or other measurement test) are consistent”. However, because people’s attitudes and views as well as situations change over time, Finlay (2006) states that reliability might only be approximated but not fully achieved in the sort of interpretative qualitative research of my study. Validity is the degree to which the research findings match the reality of the situation being studied with the assumption that the world represents more than one reality that is required to be credited (Shenton, 2004). In simple words, validity is “a demonstration that a particular instrument in fact measures what it purports to measure” (Cohen *et al.*, 2007, p. 133). Again, these were needed particularly in my study in order to check the ‘goodness’ of my research in ways that fitted my research paradigm and methods.

In this current study, reliability and validity have been addressed following procedures proposed by Guba (1981), Lincoln and Guba (1985), Altheide and Johnson (1994), Patton (2002), Gasson (2004) and Cohen *et al.* (2007). First the iterative nature of this research and triangulation (using scenarios, focus group and fieldnotes) ensured that each stage of data collection and analysis followed on and was re-examined at and before the next stage. This allowed me to confirm, dismiss or amend the data collection needed based on the iterative process of research data itself. Second, involving Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) from most Libyan universities, even a small number, provided a reasonably strong basis for data interpretation and explanation. This is to say that data showed consistency and conclusiveness in the LEFLUTs’ views and perception about their professional development (PD) needs. Finally, as the LEFLUTs seemed to share the overall general needs and concerns of most teachers in HEIs, exploring the PD needs of teachers in the UK (Fieldnotes) also ensured a consistency and a degree of trustworthiness in the findings.

Besides issues of trustworthiness and goodness, this current study has also considered all ethical concerns related to the research conduct and data collection and analysis. These ethical considerations are presented and discussed in the next section below.

5.8 Ethical Considerations

Hays and Singh (2012) define ethics as “a set of guidelines established within a professional discipline to guide thinking and behavior” (p. 68). According to Gray (2014), these guidelines determine and indicate appropriate and inappropriate conduct of researchers in relation to the subjects involved in their inquiry. Researchers should be aware of and consider these ethical issues in the process of their research and data collection. Brinkmann and Kvale (2005) summarised the process of ethics as follow:

„, it is indeed important to obtain the subjects’ consent to participate in the research, to secure their confidentiality, to inform them about the character of the research and of their right to withdraw at any time, to avoid harmful consequences for the subjects, and to consider the researcher’s role (p. 167).

The first element in Brinkmann and Kvale’s guidelines is obtaining the subjects’ consent to participate in a study which Hays and Singh (2012) call informed consent whereby the researcher seeks permission from his/her participants to participate in the study. Before contacting my participants and asking them for their consent, I applied for ethical approval from the Ethics Committee at the College of Social Sciences of the University of Glasgow and received their approval to commence the process of my data collection (see Appendix Four). According to McNamee *et al.* (2007) and Gratton and Jones (2010) before starting any research proposal, researchers should have their study assessed and approved by the ethics committee at their organisations and accept their decisions. Because the study involved some Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) who were studying at the University of Glasgow, after I received the approval from the committee, I emailed the Head of the School of Education and asked for his approval to contact my participants (see Appendix Five). Gaining that approval, I contacted my participants and asked them for their consent to take part in my study.

Because I was gathering data using scenarios and focus groups, there were two separate consent forms obtained from the participants. Firstly, to obtain their consent to participate in my study and take part in the scenarios, I provided my participants with a Participant Information Sheet (PIS) (see Appendix Six). The PIS included information on the research title, described the research project, explained the purpose of the study, mentioned the reason for the selection of participants and clarified and explained the nature of their participation. In doing so, I explained confidentiality stating that their participation was voluntary, and they had the right to withdraw at any time. In addition, I explained that the study was reviewed by the ethics committee at the University, and their information would

be stored safely and securely. Confidentiality is concerned with what will happen to the collected data and keeping the information obtained from the participants secure (McNamee *et al.*, 2007). In this study, I provided the participants with a detailed account on their confidentiality (see Appendix Six). For example, in the PIS, I stated that: “all the information collected about you (participants) will be kept strictly confidential. You will be identified by a code and any information about you will have your name and address removed so that you cannot be recognised from it”.

In voluntary consent, Gratton and Jones (2010) states that the researcher should ensure that the participants’ involvement in the study is not obligatory and that they can withdraw at any time. In the PIS, I provided the participants with this clause: “It is not obligatory to take part in this study if you do not want to, but your participation will be appreciated, and your views will be very important”. The nature of the research and the role of the researcher were also briefed and clarified in the PIS (see Appendix Six). In addition to the PIS, I also provided the participants with the consent form (see Appendix Seven) and the participants received both PIS and consent forms via emails.

As I decided to involve some of the participants in a focus group, it was obligatory to seek further approval from the Ethics Committee at the College of Social Sciences of the University of Glasgow who replied with their approval to conduct the focus group (see Appendix Eight). On receiving the approval, I sent another PIS to the participants including similar information to those provided in the PIS of the scenarios (see Appendix Nine) and a consent form (see Appendix Ten). With the focus group, the PIS included information on the research title, described the research project, explained the purpose of the study, mentioned the reason for the selection of the participants and clarified and explained the nature of their participation. I stated to the participants that their participation would be voluntary, and they had the right to withdraw at any time. I also provided the participants with information on what would happen to their information and who reviewed the study and stated that I could not guarantee confidentiality in a focus group – because participants might tell other people what had been said. However, in this PIS, I explained to the participants that the purpose of the focus is to obtain more information about their professional development (PD) needs and CPD material. In doing so, I mentioned that: ‘after you have participated and completed the 10 scenarios, some interesting ideas and useful thoughts emerged from your responses. However, at this stage I would like to explore your views about certain issues listed below in more detail to help me to prepare appropriate CPD material for the LEFLUTs’. Finally, the PIS also explained

to the participants that the focus group will last 25 minutes and will cover the following issues: your views about the skills or knowledge the LEFLUTs need to develop; your views and ideas about the activities to be included in a CPD programme designed for the LEFLUTs; your attitudes and thoughts about the features of training programme designed for the LEFLUTs (workshops/coaching/ pair/teaching/ observation and reflection); and your idea about the method of delivering CPD (in-service/ pre-service/post-service).

5.9 Chapter Summary

This chapter has described the research methodological framework for my study. I provided the rationale for the choice of my interpretative paradigm and qualitative methods in my research design. Then I discussed the iterative process of the research data collection and analysis and the rationale for the choice of the research methods: scenarios, focus groups and fieldnotes. This chapter also described triangulation, the equivalent measures of reliability and validity, explained the ethical issues involved in the study, and demonstrated how these have been addressed in this study. The whole process of this research and its theoretical framework may be summarised in the following diagram. However, this diagram is both a simplification and slightly misleading as it suggests a tidy, linear process whereas, as noted here, the research process was iterative. For example, surveying the CPD literature did not occur only at the start of the research but throughout it and so the diagram should be interpreted only as a simplified summary of the process.

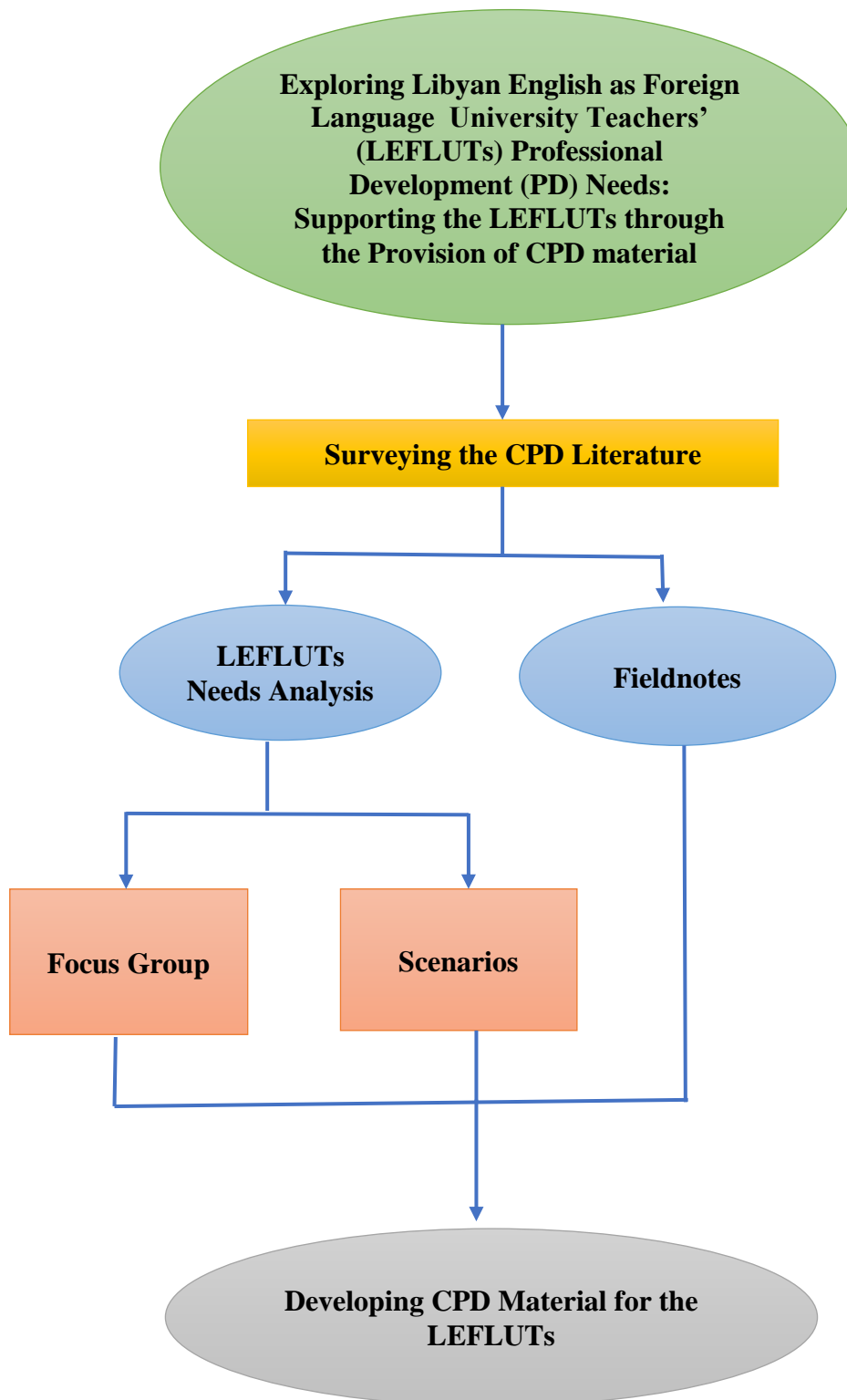


Figure 5- The Present Research Design

Chapter 6 Data Analysis and Interpretation

Building from the previous Chapter's account of the research process, this Chapter presents and discusses the process of scenario, focus group and fieldnote data analysis. In doing so, the chapter outlines a systematic process of coding, thematicization and then the presentation and interpretation of data. According to Wiersma and Jurs (2005), qualitative researchers start the analysis of data immediately after data collection begins because the researcher studies phenomena occurring at the time of the research. Due to the iterative nature of this study (see Chapter Five), I undertook an initial analysis of the data as soon as I had obtained it from each research method. In this way, I identified a set of themes and used those to develop the next method of data collection as explained below.

6.1 The Scenarios

6.1.1 Introduction

The scenarios developed for this study reflected one of the themes identified in the CPD literature in a situation that I hoped would provide answers to the first and the second research questions: What kind of knowledge do the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) think they need? What opportunities do the LEFLUTs have for professional learning? For each situation, the participants were asked to respond to questions such as "What would you do if you were in this situation? Why do you think this teacher reacted in this way? Do you do something like this?". These questions aimed to elicit the responses that might reflect the LEFLUTs' practices and indicate what knowledge they possessed or lacked. According to Hughes (1998), a researcher could expect that the responses of the participants to such scenarios would be based on what they would do in similar situations or what the individuals involved in the story would do. In this study, the participants responded to the ten scenarios (see Appendix Two) based on what they would have done in given situations, what they thought about other situations or what other individuals involved should have done or how the participants thought they should have reacted to the given situations.

6.1.2 The Participants

There were 14 Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) participants in this study from different Libyan universities. At the start of this study, six of these participants were based and teaching English as Foreign Language (EFL) at Libyan universities, while eight participants were based in the UK studying for PhD degrees having taught EFL in Libyan universities. All participants who broadly shared cultural and educational backgrounds were contacted and received and returned the scenarios via emails. Each participant was asked to respond to all scenarios in order to ensure that the responses elicited enough information about the LEFLUTs' knowledge, teaching practice and professional development (PD) needs, covering all the issues identified in the CPD literature and answering the first and second research questions.

6.1.3 Preparing Data for Analysis

In the initial stages of data analysis, Lodico *et al.* (2010) state that data analysis might involve transcribing audio or video recordings into written forms, labelling the participants' responses, and organising responses under different codes or categories, depending on the time and resources available. The data in this study was organised and prepared for analysis based on a three-stage framework proposed by Wiersma and Jurs (2005) and Cohen *et al.* (2007). This framework consisted of coding, categorising data, and interpreting and reporting the findings. In the coding stage, the data was organised by individual responses in which the responses of each participant to all scenarios were grouped separately. Then, in placing data into categories, I grouped the participants' responses to each scenario together. Finally, in the interpreting and reporting of findings, the data is explained, and the findings are presented and discussed.

6.1.3.1 The Coding Process

Coding involves the categorisation of the research data, including the participants' details and responses to research questions, in order to prepare it for analysis by ascribing a category label to a piece of data; this category can be defined and developed before the process of data analysis or identified from the data in the initial data analysis stage. (Nichols, 1973). According to Punch and Oancea (2014, p. 225), coding refers to "tags, names or labels put against pieces of the data". Once the participants had completed the

scenarios, I used their initials to codify and classify their responses, exploring the responses of each participant and identifying unanswered questions or incomplete information such as ‘yes’ or ‘no’ answers when the participants had been asked to explain and express their views more fully.

Coding is an essential stage in data analysis that starts once the data is obtained, and it involves finding words, phrases, ideas, thoughts, events or issues that reoccur through the responses (Bogdan and Biklen, 2007). As part of coding the data and to maintain anonymity, I referred to the participants with ‘L’ to indicate LEFLUT and gave each one a number from 1 to 14. So, when I want to point to a piece of data from the participants, I use L1, L2, L3 and so on to refer the participant from whom the data was taken. In addition, for ease of reference, I used “S” and numbers from One to Ten to refer to the relevant scenario so that when I refer to a piece of data from one participant to a specific scenario, I use, for example, L1 S Three (LEFLUT 1, Scenario Three). This process of codifying the data, assigning “L” and a number to each LEFLUT and “S” and a number to each scenario and reading and organising the data in two separate stages provided me with initial thoughts about key themes and overall findings, which I outline in the next section.

6.1.3.2 Categorising the Data

The second stage in preparing the data for analysis involved summarising and grouping the responses of all the participants under each scenario and deducing key themes. Auerbach and Silverstein (2003) describe themes as repeated ideas or phrases that share something in common; they are topics or issues under which those repeated group of ideas can be summarised. According to Charmaz (2014), at this stage the researcher should be open to developing themes and codes that are simple and precise to allow for the original themes to be adapted or for new themes to be added when dealing with the data at each stage. This phase required a careful and continuous process of reading, exploring and comparing the developed themes with the whole data set in order to avoid missing or misrepresenting key categories.

I classified the responses of all participants to each scenario together grouping fourteen responses under each scenario which helped me to summarise the key issues in the data and to identify the most common and recurrent themes among the data in each scenario and across the data. Once I grouped the participants’ responses under each scenario separately, I identified single words, phrases or whole chunks that were repeated across the

data. Then, I realised that the developed themes could be categorised and reduced by developing main categories under which other themes and sub-themes could be organised.

As a result, I identified three main categories: teacher knowledge, professional development needs and contextual factors under which other themes and sub-themes were classified as shown in Tables Two, Three and Four below along with evidence from the data, the number of the participants and the number of scenarios from which the data was obtained.

6.1.3.3 Interpretation of the Data and Reporting the Findings

According to Mertens (2010), the development and presentation of themes using words or phrases that identify the key issues in the data enable researchers to interpret and explain their data and formulate an analytical framework with which a deeper understanding of the data can be provided. In the previous two sections, I showed how the data was coded and prepared for analysis by summarising and making a set of categories under which themes and sub-themes were organised. Dealing with the data in the previous stages and developing the three sets of themes suggested that the data could be analysed in relation to the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers' (LEFLUTs) teacher knowledge base (TKB), professional development (PD) needs and contextual factors which I explain in the next section.

6.1.3.3.1 The LEFLUTs Teacher Knowledge Base (TKB)

Here I explore the participants' responses in relation to the components of Shulman's teacher knowledge base (TKB) which I discussed in Chapter Three. Generally speaking, the participants' responses to most scenarios indicated that the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers' (LEFLUTs) possess some aspects of content knowledge (CK) and general pedagogical knowledge (GPK) as shown in Table Two below but suggested that there appears to be a gap in what most LEFLUTs think and know about English Language Teaching (ELT) and how they put their knowledge into practice. I discuss this issue of gap between knowledge and practice in more depth in my discussion on findings from scenarios and focus group in Section 6.4 below.

Category	Theme	Sub-theme	Evidence from Data	Participants	Scenario
Teacher Knowledge	Content Knowledge		<i>depending on the subject I teach, when I teach subjects such as Linguistics, introducing the new vocabulary, teaching grammar, teaching writing, Grammar is a component of language while writing is a language skill</i>	L1, L3, L6, L8	S One, S Two, S Seven, S Eight, S Nine
	General pedagogical knowledge (GPK)	Knowledge of Teaching Approaches	<i>grammar translation, audiolingual method, the behaviouristic theory of learning teacher-centred, traditional method, the use of visuals, interactive activities, learner-centred, modern and innovative teaching methods, communicative methods, scaffolding, traditional ways of teaching</i>	L1, L2, L3, L4, L5, L6, L7,	S One, S Two, S Three, S Four, S Five,
		Learner Knowledge	<i>Engaging, involve, eliciting participation, interaction, encourage, dependent, receptive, type of information that the learners are supposed to learn, my students having difficulties understanding my lectures, understanding of his students and how they are going to benefit from what they learned</i>	L1, L2, L3, L4, L5, L6, L7, L8, L9, L11,	S One, S Two, S Three, S Four, S Five,
		Knowledge of Classroom Management	<i>pair work, group work, divide the class into smaller groups, large classes, crowded classes, small classes, the short time and difficulty to follow, improving their time management, limited time, prepare their lessons, organise and plan their lessons, less preparation, give some time for lesson preparation,</i>	L1, L2, L4, L5, L6, L7, L8, L9	S One, S Two, S Three, S Four, S Five, S Nine, S Ten

			<i>inadequate preparing lessons</i>		
		Curriculum Knowledge	<i>evaluate their course selection, evaluate the topics some interactive activities, prepared the suitable material, exclusion of some materials, used different materials such as pictures and videos, technology helps teachers to improve their, adapt useful materials</i>	L2, L3, L5, L6, L7, L12 and L14	S Two, S Four, S Six S Seven, S Nine

Table 2-Scenario Themes, Category One: Teacher Knowledge

Content Knowledge

As outline in Chapter Three, content knowledge (CK) is the knowledge that teachers have about their courses and subjects. Although the scenarios focused on other aspects of the teacher knowledge base (TKB), the participants' responses to Scenarios One, Two, Seven, Eight, and Nine suggested that the LEFLUTs' possess adequate CK. For example, in response to these scenarios, L1, L3, L6 and L8, reflected some of their CK.

my practice may vary depending on the subject I teach. For example, I commit to direct method when I teach subjects such as Linguistics or Teaching Methodologies (L6, S One).

Besides, the way of introducing the new vocabulary to the students depends on their current level in English (L8, S One).

The one who is teaching grammar is a creative teacher while the other who is teaching writing just think how to finish the lesson (L1, S Eight).

the two subjects in question are different. Grammar is a component of language while writing is a language skill (L3, S Eight).

Since the LEFLUTs hold masters and PhD's degrees in different English language areas, they are assumed to have sufficient CK knowledge about their subjects. In addition, previous empirical studies reported that the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) do have adequate CK (Elabbar, 2011; Suwaed, 2011; Abosnan, 2016). According to Calderhead and Shorrock (2003), although it is an essential part of teacher's professionalism, teachers' CK alone does not make good teachers because teachers would also need general pedagogical knowledge (GPK) to be effective teachers

(Reeves, 2009). Additionally, while I had not asked specifically about global English or intercultural communication, the data did not provide any evidence that the LEFLUTs knew about or attended to these aspects of English today and so I note in the next Chapter, the need to develop work in this area. In the next section, I will explore the LEFLUTs GPK.

General Pedagogical Knowledge

General pedagogical knowledge (GPK) consists of different but interrelated aspects of knowledge about teaching approaches and techniques, knowledge about learners, knowledge about classroom management and knowledge about curriculum. Based on these knowledge types, the participants' responses to Scenarios One, Two, Three, Five, Six, Seven, Nine and Ten are analysed separately in relation to each knowledge type.

Knowledge about Teaching Approaches

Teaching approaches are usually classified into teacher-centred (traditional) approaches or learner-centred (interactive) approaches, as discussed in Chapter Three. With teacher-centred methodologies, the teacher is usually the ultimate power and source of knowledge who controls learning and the content of material and activities (Harden and Crosby, 2000). In turn, the students usually become passive participants who receive information transmitted by their teachers (Hannafin *et al.*, 1997). In contrast, learner-centred methodologies can be more empowering and more constructive whereby teachers become facilitators and monitors of learning, and students plan their learning and influence the content of their material and activities (Collins and O'Brien, 2003). For example, in their responses to Scenarios One, Two, Three, Five and Nine, participants L1, L2, L3, L4 and L5 showed knowledge about both teacher-centred and learner-centred approaches such as the grammar translation method, audiolingual method, direct method, communicative language teaching and task-based language teaching in their comments below:

teacher uses two different techniques: the former is concerned with a quite different method of the grammar translation method whereas the latter deals with the audiolingual method and the behaviouristic theory of learning (L3, S One).

I used this kind of lesson, I tried to activate students' schema by giving them some pictures with scaffolding them (L1, S One).

I can also notice that this method is not learner-oriented due to absence of student participation. Reliance on translation in English classes where student are expected to be exposed to target language is not engaging (L2, S One).

the part of using visuals to present her lesson is good as it needs to be started by eliciting the title of the lesson at the beginning instead of reading and asking students for translation (L4, S One).

He/she need to arrange some interactive activities such as group work or discussion to encourage the students to participate (L1, S Two).

It would be better if teacher used different materials such as pictures and videos to set the scene at the beginning and then he/she can elicit more information related to the lesson (L4, S Two).

most of Libyan teachers still use grammar translation method or audio-lingual method (L1, S Five).

they need to exploit every moment in the class to speak and practice English (L5, S Five).

Although the data indicates that the participants possess adequate knowledge about a wide range of learner-centred interactive methodologies and techniques, including communicative language teaching and task-based language teaching, it appears that the grammar translation method, audiolingual method and direct method are the most common approaches among most of the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers' (LEFLUTs). The participants' responses also indicate that the LEFLUTs' choice of methodology appears to be influenced by the contextual factors in their teaching and learning situation. The participants mentioned lack of facilities, large classes, students' low aptitude and levels of English and motivation, and lack of training as the main impairments to their creativity and innovation. I discuss these obstacles in more detail in the next section below. The participants explained that although they try to involve the students and encourage them to actively participate in the classroom activities, through brainstorming, scaffolding, exposure to the target language and communicating or interacting in the target language, their efforts are usually hindered by the above factors.

According to Richards and Farrell (2005), although language teachers are encouraged and required to adapt their materials and approaches to meet their learners' needs and suit their context, in many English as Foreign Language (EFL) and English as Second Language (ESL) contexts language teachers often struggle to do this due to the various contextual factors they usually face. In addition, three previous research studies on LEFLUTs have reported that although they have sufficient knowledge about various learner-centred teaching approaches and techniques, their practice is very often based on traditional methodologies (Elabbar 2011; Suwaed 2011; Abosnan 2016) According to Orafi and Borg (2009) and Al Rifai (2010), the LEFLUTs resort to teacher-centred methodologies and

refrain from implementing more interactive approaches due to several contextual factors as noted above. In addition, Suwaed (2011) and Abosnan (2016) reported that although the LEFLUTs have appropriate knowledge about general principles of teaching and classroom presentation, they lack appropriate presentation skills and techniques for teaching language skills and components through interactive approaches, especially reading and writing. Similarly, this study suggests that although the LEFLUTs seem to possess knowledge of general approaches and classroom representations, they seem to lack specific knowledge and skills to teaching specific language skills including reading and speaking through more interactive approaches.

Knowledge about Learners

According to Ehrman *et al.* (2003), teacher knowledge about learners revolves around three areas: knowledge about learning styles, knowledge about learning strategies and knowledge about affective factors. According to Oxford, R. (1990) and Oxford and Lavine (1992), language learners employ different strategies and styles to improve their learning and acquire language effectively. The responses of several participants to Scenarios One, Two, and Three suggested that the LEFLUTs are aware of some individual differences (IDs) but seemed to lack appropriate knowledge of learner's strategies (see Chapter Three). For example, in response in Scenarios One, Two and Three, participants L1, L6, L8 and L12 stated that:

my presentation of the lesson depends on the type of information that the learners are supposed to learn from the lesson (L8, S One).

If I were him, I would not leave my students having difficulties understanding my lectures. Instead, I would prioritise students' needs and recruitments over my course being completed (L6, S Two).

The professional teacher should concentrate on the quality not on the quantity of the materials he is going to teach. In other words, he should concentrate on the understanding of his students and how they are going to benefit from what they learned (L12, S Two).

The sole aim for this kind of teachers is to help the students to pass the exam and that might be his/her aim. I advise this teacher to create a communicative environment (L1, S Three).

The above responses suggest that the majority of the LEFLUTs recognise the fact that the type of information is processed by the learners through different strategies. In other words, learners employ different processes to attend to the same input which encourages language teachers to provide a variety of content and activities to offer opportunities for all learners

to construct their own learning. These responses suggest at least two strategies or approaches to learning, a deep approach and a surface approach. A deep approach to learning requires language learners to focus on details and relevant meanings and relate the course content to their own personal experiences and achieve high academic achievements (Biggs, 1993). Deep learning draws on the principles of constructive approaches such as communicative language teaching and task-based language teaching as discussed in Chapter Three and Four. In constructive approaches learners become responsible for their own learning and teachers become moderators who monitor and support the learners achieve effective outcomes. In addition, constructive approaches help learners to relate the content of their learners to their own personal and educational experiences to achieve deeper understandings and higher personal enrichment. A surface approach to learning often involves extrinsically motivated learners who usually focus on general information, complete the task in the quickest and easiest ways and invest minimal time and effort to pass the course (Biggs, 1993). Previous studies have reported that most LEFLUTs complain that the majority of their learners often focus on passing the exams rather than learning the material as an input to learn the language (Orafi and Borg, 2009; Al Rifai, 2010).

According to the participants, most Libyan EFL students adopt surface approaches to learning due to the teachers' approach and the learners' low motivation and level. In language learning, motivation is considered a key factor to successful language learning and can influence not only the language learners' achievement but also the extent to which they sustain their learning (Gardner and MacIntyre, 1993b). Some participants, for instance, explained that:

overreliance on traditional ways of teaching could result in students being solely dependent on their instructors. Being receptive students...could hinder students' learning abilities and skills (L6, S One).

he would reduce the students' motivation and initiative to participate which subsequently cause boredom (L9, S Two).

And if the focus is for them to learn and actually use the knowledge, then you will find a way to overcome class size and engage them in the process of learning (L11, S Three).

encourage learners to take part and ask them to prepare lessons ... push and encourage learners to get involved in this process and enhance their interactions (L5, S Four).

In the previous chapters, it was reported that motivation is one of the main obstacles that the LEFLUTs face in their teaching. This might explain why the LEFLUTs consider motivation a key concern for the improvement of their teaching and their learners' achievements. According to Gardner and MacIntyre (1993b), motivation is a key factor in language learning that entails desire to achieve a particular goal, an effort to achieve this goal, and satisfaction with the achievement. Research on L2 acquisition suggests that intrinsically motivated language learners, with motivation driven by the learner's own need or desire to learn the language such as to integrate into the culture, were more successful and more proficient than extrinsically motivated language learners, that is learners who are motivated by academic requirements or job advancements (Ehrman *et al.*, 2003). Dörnyei (2003) also shows that learners with integrative (intrinsic) motivational orientation often have positive interpersonal attitudes toward L2 people and the desire to interact, integrate and even resemble the target language's community. Based on the participants' responses, it appears that the LEFLUTs regard Libyan EFL learners as externally motivated to learn EFL as a requirement. As a result, these are perceived to often focus on the completion of the coursebooks and passing exams rather than learning the language in order to understand its culture or communicate and interact with its people.

Beside motivation, the responses of several participants to Scenarios One, Five, Six, Seven, Nine and Ten showed that the learners' low level of English and aptitude is also a major concern for the LEFLUTs. While the word aptitude was used by the LEFLUTs, I think they may, sometimes, have been referring to the level of their students but aptitude did emerge as a factor and area of concern. Aptitude refers to the language learners' ability to learn language and it is a complex construct of cognitive, personality, and affective human abilities that impacts the individual's potential for acquiring new knowledge or skill (Ehrman *et al.*, 2003; Dörnyei, 2005). For example, in response to the above scenarios, several participants believed that:

using our mother tongue when necessary to overcome the lack of speaking English that my students have (L1, S One).

according to the level of students, using the learners' mother tongue when it is inevitable is acceptable (L10, S One).

I think that the way he is used to teach might be effective in some situations especially that the English language of most of the students is inadequate and not to the standards (L10, S Five).

the English language of most of the students is inadequate and not to the standards (L12, S Five).

teaching methods which help students to improve their level (L7, S Six).

They will benefit from a course which fits their demands, in terms of class size and students levels (L11, S Seven).

teachers must be aware of the various proficiency of learning ability of every individual as failure to do so might result in students becoming resistant to learn (L6, S Nine).

Unlike other affective factors, learner aptitude is not one construct of cognitive abilities, but, as suggested above. it includes other general and specific variables such as personality, motivation and attitude (Oxford and Ehrman, 1995). Aptitude influences both the learners' linguistic outcomes such as communicative competence (CC) (proficiency/ accuracy) and non-linguistic achievements such as motivation and attitudes and it often influences the language learner's choice of learning styles and strategies (Skehan, 1991; Gardner and MacIntyre, 1993b). Ehrman and Oxford (1995) found that aptitude was the main individual difference that correlates with second language (L2) proficiency. In formal classroom settings and Gardner (2001) also reports that aptitude, as well as motivation, was the most fundamental factor in successful language learning. It appears that aptitude is an individual difference that involves other factors such as motivation and attitude and that influences the teachers' practice and learners' styles, strategies and outcomes. The participants seem to be aware of the key role of aptitude in successful language learning and its negative impacts on the Libyan EFL learners' motivation, attitude and overall achievements.

In their research studies, Elabbar (2011), Suwaed (2011) and Abosnan (2016) reported that the responses of their participants suggest that most of LEFLUTs acknowledge the fundamental role of aptitude and its impact on the Libyan EFL learners' and their achievement. These studies reported that the low aptitude of the Libyan EFL students appears to have been the main influence that restricted the LEFLUTs' choice of material and methodology and decreased the learners' achievements and success in language learning. The current study too suggests that the LEFLUTs are well aware of the key role of aptitude to their students' learning and motivation and that aptitude appears to be one of the main obstacles facing the LEFLUTs. However, it is also possible that level of English and aptitude can become confused and, sometimes, the LEFLUTs, as noted above, seemed to be most worried about the poor English language level of their students and that may or may not be related to aptitude.

The language teachers' knowledge about learners guides their decisions, informs their choice of methodology and material and influences their classroom management skills and so, in the next section, I explore the LEFLUTs' knowledge and skills of classroom management.

Knowledge about Classroom Management

Classroom management refers to the steps, procedures, routines and rules required for effective classroom instruction and adopted by teachers to maintain order. It includes managing time, planning activities and material, establishing discipline, solving and responding to immediate problems in the class and maintaining a good rapport with students (Lee, 1995; Emmer and Stough, 2001). Beside the knowledge about teaching approaches and techniques and knowledge about learners, my data showed that although some of the LEFLUTs seem to possess some sort of knowledge about classroom management, other LEFLUTs lack such knowledge and struggle to maintain effective classroom management skills which appears to hinder them from adopting more interactive approaches. For example, in response to Scenarios Two, Three, Four, Five, Nine and Ten, several participants demonstrated various skills and techniques of activity selection, time management and lesson planning. So, L1, L6, L11, L12 believed that successful and effective teaching activities depend on the teacher's skills and procedures of classroom management including classroom arrangement, time management and lesson planning.

He/she needs to arrange some interactive activities such as group work or discussion to encourage the students to participate (L1, S Two).

dividing large classes into groups and pairs could be ineffective because of the short time and difficulty to follow them up and give them feedback (L10, S Three).

There is a possibility of joining online courses and instruction that help you as a teacher by indicating the necessary skills and strategies that are most useful to have control inside the classroom (L11, S Five).

They could sacrifice one hour of their free time at home to work on their lessons. One hour shouldn't ruin their rest, and it could be just long enough for them to prepare their lessons, especially if they do it on a daily basis" (L13, S Three).

teacher should organise their times to a degree that can assist them organise and plan their lessons (L6, S Four).

Preparing your lessons the day before the lesson is just like a student who studies for the exam the day before the exam. I would simply recommend that

these teachers should prepare their lessons on their weekends. They could also work on improving their time management (L8, S Four).

They can reduce this pressure by planning their new lessons in advance and they can keep these planned lessons for the next year and then they need only to update these lessons (L12, S Four).

The participants' responses to the above scenarios suggest that classroom management is extremely important to many LEFLUTs who attempt to improve their teaching practice and their students' learning experience. The participants suggest that the lack of appropriate classroom management skills and procedures may be impacting the LEFLUTs choice of students' grouping and types of activities. Time management, lesson planning and students grouping appear to be key skills for the LEFLUTs who want to improve their teaching and provide effective learning environments for their students. According to Berliner (1988), classroom management provides newly recruited teachers with minimal level of techniques and skills to be able to demonstrate effective classroom presentation. It is a key factor for effective classroom interaction and a basic determinant of successful lesson presentation (Marx *et al.*, 1999). The participants seem to recognise the importance of classroom management skills and techniques and suggest that it is required for the LEFLUTs profession, TKB and their CPD material. According to Emmer and Stough (2001), classroom management is a significant aspect of the GPK and a fundamental element of the language teacher's TKB. Classroom management could help the LEFLUTs to create appropriate and safe environment for effective learning and successful presentation of material where they can collaborate with their learners towards effective and constructive learning.

Knowledge about Curriculum

Knowledge of curriculum refers to the teachers' knowledge about the material of the subject matter they are teaching as well as knowledge about other subjects related to their discipline. According to Park and Oliver (2008), curriculum knowledge enables language teachers to determine basic concepts, adjust activities and exclude irrelevant or unsuitable content that is considered to be marginal to the current students' objectives or the aim of the material. The responses of several participants to Scenarios Two, Four, Six, and Seven show that the LEFLUTs do have adequate knowledge about curricular demonstrated by the design and development of their own material using various sources such as the internet or the adaptation of their extant material such as excluding or simplifying the content to suit their situation and their learners' needs. For example, L1, L2, L3, L4, L7, L12 and L14

think that the LEFLUTs should prepare and adapt their own material from different sources to suit their situation and interest their learners.

I will recommend him/her to focus on students' understanding and not just finishing the materials by the end of the year. He/she need to arrange some interactive activities such as group work or discussion to encourage the students to participate (L1, S Two).

His exclusion of some materials before the exam definitely minimizes knowledge-gaining (L2, S Two).

It would be better if teacher used different materials such as pictures and videos to set the scene at the beginning and then he/she can elicit more information related to the lesson (L4, S Two).

the teacher needs to cover the important stuffs and guarantees that students became fully aware and understand the topics rather than to cover the whole materials without acquiring any deep knowledge (L7, S Two).

The professional teacher should concentrate on the quality not on the quantity of the materials he is going to teach. In other words he should concentrate on the understanding of his students and how they are going to benefit from what they learned (L12, S Two).

they should have prepared the suitable material whether from the internet or the library rather than being informed about the topic in the day of the lecture (L14, S Two).

They have to evaluate their course selection among each other (L3, S Four).

I believe that technology helps teachers to improve their lessons and enable them to be more competent in the class as, they can adapt useful materials that can be used as a resources in teaching (L4, S Seven).

These comments suggest that the participants think the LEFLUTs should sometimes adapt their curriculum and use extra sources to complement their material and coursebook. This indicates that the LEFLUTs are aware of the importance of material adaptation to overcome some of the contextual factors such as large classes and individuals differences presented in the previous sections. Two previous studies with LEFLUTs also reported that the LEFLUTs adapt their material to suit their learners and their context based on their knowledge and experience of material development and design. For example, Elabbar (2011) found that some LEFLUTs use various sources and techniques and adapt their material to suit their students and their context such as using the internet, excluding some content, and using other complementary sources. Suwaed (2011) also found that many LEFLUTs adapt their material and use external resources (internet/ supplementary material) to suit their teaching situation and meet the learners' needs based on their own knowledge and views about teaching and learning. According to Duffee and Aikenhead (1992),

teachers adapt their teaching resources and teaching approaches to suit their teaching and learning situation. Talbert (1993) also states that due the complexity and diversity of teaching contexts, teaching practices and resources are influenced by many situational factors that determine what to teach and the way to teach it.

The participants' responses suggest that knowledge of curriculum, as well as the other types of knowledge discussed in Chapter Three, appears to be a fundamental element for the LEFLUTs and their CPD material that may support the LEFLUTs to develop their knowledge and improve their practice and their students' outcomes. When the LEFLUTs acknowledge and understand the importance of material adaptation and its impact on their practice and students' learning, they might be motivated to use different sources and activities and provide appropriate content for their learners and their situation.

Having explored the LEFLUTs' knowledge base and identified its elements: content knowledge, knowledge of teaching approaches, learner knowledge and curriculum knowledge, in the next section, I will explore the LEFLUTs' PD needs based on the participants' responses.

6.1.3.3.2 The LEFLUTs Professional Needs

In order to facilitate the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers' (LEFLUTs) professional development (PD) it is necessary to understand how teachers develop and improve and what conditions support and promote their development. According to Ball (1996), CPD is considered effective and productive when teachers are at the centre of CPD design and delivery. Moon (2013) also adds that planning CPD activities should consider the teachers' situation (size of classes/students' differences/teaching facilities), their ability to attend training programmes, their economic conditions, and their teaching and learning cultures. In this study, the LEFLUTs were consulted on their PD needs through these scenarios and the focus group which I discuss in the next section. The scenario data suggests that LEFLUTs' CPD material should include the following: general pedagogical knowledge (GPK), collaboration, reflection, sustainability, coaching and mentoring as shown in Table Three below.

Category	Theme	Sub-theme	Evidence from Data	Participants	Scenario
Professional Development Needs	Content of CPD	General pedagogical knowledge (GPK)	<i>training course to deal with large classes and how to deal with the heavy timetable, updating courses on teaching activities and skills are seriously needed, They could also work on improving their time management, find a way how they can divide the students into smaller groups, create a communicative environment where the students participate</i>	L1, L3L, L6, L8, L10 and L13	S Two, S Three, S Ten
	Features of CPD	Collaboration	<i>sharing the idea together and discuss the methods, evaluate their course selection among each other, arranging a meeting everyday or every two days, Meeting with colleagues, peer feedbacks, and thus teachers can share their challenges</i>	L1, L3, L4, L5, L6, L13	S One, S Two, S Three, S Four, L Ten,
		Reflection	<i>discuss and share their opinions between each other, informal discussion, getting feedback and comment from each other, develop their experience and reflect it, reflecting their experience, discuss some issues related to the classes, exchange points of view or share experiences, sharing the idea together, teachers can share their challenges and solutions,</i>	L1, L4, L6, L10, L14	S Two, S Four, S Five, S Nine
		Sustainability	<i>continuing training, update their teaching methods, always try to improve, applying new methods of teaching, should take training courses on a regular basis in order to keep updated, Training is</i>	L2, L5, L6, L7, L8, L9, L12, L13,	S Five, S Six, S Seven,

			<i>important and continuously required, stay up to date with new changes, the teacher should always improve his method in teaching; the teacher should always update himself with effective technique and teaching methods, self-developed, regular professional development courses, developing courses on an annual basis</i>		
		Coaching/ mentoring	<i>group discussions and peer feedback activities, they can assume they are teaching and getting feedback and comment from each other, These sessions can also provide peer feedbacks, experienced staff, benefit from some experienced teachers to transmit his/her experience, They ought to refer to senior colleagues and partners in the course as, meet experience teachers</i>	L1, L5, L6, L7,	S Four, S Seven, S Ten
	Delivery of CPD	Pre-service	<i>training courses, training sessions, sufficient training courses,</i>	L1, L2, L4, L5, L6, L8,	S Three, S Four,
		INSET	<i>workshops, joining online courses, in-service, suitable training, professional development, developing courses on an annual basis, regular professional development courses</i>	L9, L11, L12,	S Five, S Six, S Seven, S Eight,

Table 3-Scenario Themes, Category Two: Professional Development Needs

General Pedagogical Knowledge (GPK)

In these scenarios, the participants identified various aspects of general pedagogical knowledge (GPK) such as classroom management, learner-centred methodologies and

material development and design as necessary topics for the LEFLUTs and their CPD. For example, L1, L3, L6, L8, L10 and L13 suggested the following:

he should talk to the school headmaster to find a way how they can divide the students into smaller groups (L13, S Two).

I advise this teacher to create a communicative environment where the students participate with each other by asking them to work as a group (L1, S Three).

They could also work on improving their time management (L8, S Four).

they have to take some training course to deal with large classes and how to deal with the heavy timetable (L1, S Ten).

I consider updating courses on teaching activities and skills are seriously needed (L10, S Ten).

The participants' responses to several scenarios indicate that GPK - classroom management, teaching methodology and curriculum knowledge - are key aspects for the LEFLUTs' TKB and some of them suggest these are important topics for their own PD. In the previous section, the participants showed that general pedagogical knowledge is a key element of the LEFLUTs' knowledge that may support them to deliver effective classroom practices and provide effective environment for their learners to learn the language effectively and improve their achievements. This suggests that general pedagogical knowledge is key component for the LEFLUTs' CPD material.

In addition to GPK, the participants also talked about collaboration, reflection, sustainability and coaching/mentoring which they believe can help the LEFLUTs develop their knowledge, improve their practice and resolve their problems.

Collaboration

Collaboration, which has already been defined and thoroughly discussed in Chapters Three and Four, entails a group of people working together to discuss common issues, resolve shared issues or set out plans to improve their situations and, here, to learn together. The participants' responses to the above scenarios show that they think collaboration is a key element for the LEFLUTs' practice and sometimes for their PD. For example, L1, L3, L4, L6 and L13 proposed that:

Work shop or sharing the idea together and discuss the methods they are applying in the class might help them to benefit from each other (L1, S Four).

They have to evaluate their course selection among each other, so they reduce teaching burden upon their shoulder (L3, S Four).

arranging a meeting everyday or every two days to make their lessons plans. Such teachers' meetings could help teacher free themselves up from everyday life pressure. These sessions can also provide peer feedbacks, and thus teachers can share their challenges and solutions with others (L6, S Four).

Meeting with colleagues and discussing teaching-related topics is also very useful (L13, S Nine).

The above examples show the participants talking about collaboration between teachers, between teachers and other officials, and between teachers and students. The participants suggest that collaboration is a key feature for the LEFLUTs who seem to lack appropriate support and advise that the LEFLUTs should work together to resolve their problems and work on the improvement of their teaching and their professional development (PD). The CPD literature suggests that collaboration is a desirable and indispensable aspect for effective CPD activities and language teachers' PD that enhances the PD of language teachers and improves their practice. According to Mitton-Kükner and Akyüz (2012), collaboration can support EFL university teachers to develop awarenesses of their professional development experiences inside and outside the university, allow them to share their experiences, help them to learn and adopt teaching techniques from each other and promote the development of new understandings about their profession and context. In addition, Farrell (2018) reports that collaboration helps TESOL teachers to become more aware of their lesson planning, classroom instruction and material implementation.

In Chapters Two, Three and Four, it was reported that the LEFLUTs' teaching and learning approaches appear to have encouraged them to develop unstructured and unsystematic approaches to collaboration based on individual practices (Aloreobi and Carey, 2017). As a result, the LEFLUTs often become isolated and develop teaching practices based on their intuitive and impulsive and previous experiences. Little (1990a) and Feiman-Nemser (2001) found that in many TEFL/TESL settings, language teachers often work in isolation, facing their problems in exclusion from the social environment of learning and they may have little experience of observing and sharing experiences with others. As a result, these teachers usually have less opportunities for PD and acquisition of new knowledge and expertise. In brief, teaching and learning in isolation appears to encourage the LEFLUTs to follow fixed routines and practices, rely on their previous experiences, impulse and intuitions and face their problems alone.

Based on the participants' responses, the data suggests that collaboration is a key feature for the LEFLUTs' PD and their CPD material. However, besides collaboration the data

also suggests reflection on teaching and learning experiences is another feature that the LEFLUTs should learn about.

Reflection

Beside collaboration, some participants suggested reflection as another feature that might help Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) to develop their knowledge and improve their practice. According to Valli (1997) and Griffiths (2000), reflective language teaching entails that language teachers critically examine and improve their practices through the deliberation and reconsideration of their practices to evaluate their practice and make changes. In this study, the participants L1, L4, L10 and L14 proposed that the LEFLUTs should be given opportunities to discuss and share their experiences and reflect on their practices. For example, these participants suggested that:

should have enough time to discuss and share their opinions between each other (L4, S Two).

in the informal discussion in their room they can assume they are teaching and getting feedback and comment from each other. That might develop their experience and reflect it in the class (L1, S Four).

Planning the lessons and reflecting their experience are essential (L10, S Four).

it is a positive act of teachers to discuss some issues related to the classes as this may lead to exchange points of view or share experiences, consequently reaching good solutions to some difficulties encountered in the classes (L14, S Five).

Like collaboration, reflection is developed and sustained through engagement in collaborative activities in which language teachers listen to each other and relate what they hear to their own experiences and situations (Feldman, 1999). As noted, in language teacher education, reflection is considered a key feature for effective CPD and a pre-requisite of the language teachers' professional development (PD) (Mann, 2005). The above participants' responses suggest that they seem to think that reflection is a fundamental element for the LEFLUTs' PD and the improvement of their practice. As with collaboration, the participants' responses suggest that the LEFLUTs might value more time for reflection but a lack of PD activities or any other support means they might not have enough time for this at the moment. According to Farrell (2008), Akcan (2010) and Farrell (2013), when language teachers, such as the LEFLUTs, work in isolation and lack appropriate support, individual and collaborative approaches to reflection, such as

portfolios, discussion groups or observation, could provide these teachers with appropriate support and opportunities for PD.

In the previous chapters, it was suggested that although the LEFLUTs are making efforts to develop their knowledge and improve their practice such as adapting their material and implementing interactive activities, it appears that they usually do so based on unsystematic and individualistic approaches guided by personal experiences (Elabbar, 2011; Suwaed, 2011). This suggest that the LEFLUTs appear to usually reflect through individual approaches based on their own experiences and views. Saito *et al.* (2008) and Nguyen (2008), also report that, in many EFL and ESL situations, language teachers reflect on their experiences through various personal approaches, make judgements and react to their situations based on their intuition and impulse. Such unsystematic and individual approaches to reflection often standardise the teaching practices and teacher knowledge base (TKB) of these language teachers and may lead to ineffective fixed routines and classroom practices (Skrtic *et al.*, 1996). In turn, systematic approaches to reflection such as discussion groups and observation may encourage the LEFLUTs to think about their practice, question their approaches, identify challenges and respond to them based on further reading, research or discussion with colleagues. This may provide opportunities for the LEFLUTs to develop their knowledge and improve their teaching practice if appropriate resources and facilities are made available to them.

Like collaboration, the data suggests that reflection is useful and important feature for the LEFLUTs' PD and their CPD material. Besides collaboration and reflection, the data also suggests that sustainability is another key feature for the LEFLUTs and their PD.

Sustainability

Despite what has been said about both collaboration and reflection, these features might not be effective unless they are sustained over time. Most of the participants suggested that the LEFLUTs should sustain their professional development (PD) through both ongoing formal and informal PD activities. According to Webster-Wright (2009) and Opfer *et al.* (2011), the PD of language teachers is considered more effective not only when it provides opportunities for collaborative and reflective activities but also when it is sustainable and sustained over time. In their responses to Scenarios Five and Six, several participants commented that:

I would say that there have to be continuing training and developing programmes for university teachers (L2, S Five).

Therefore, it is the teachers' responsibility to update their teaching methods so that their teaching becomes more effective (L8, S Five).

Therefore, teachers should always try to improve their capabilities by applying new methods of teaching in order to achieve the optimum (L9, S Five).

Language teachers should take training courses on a regular basis in order to keep updated with regard to the new techniques and strategies being introduced to the field of language teaching (L13, S Five).

Training is important and continuously required (L2, S Six).

our responsibilities as teachers are to stay up to date with new changes (L6, S Six).

the teacher should always improve his method in teaching; the teacher should always update himself with effective technique and teaching methods (L7, S Six).

teaching methods and knowledge are never limited. They are always updated (L8, S Six).

The above participants suggest that the LEFLUTs should sustain their PD through ongoing PD activities and training otherwise they may face obstacles to implement new reforms through effective material and methodologies or burnout. According to Miles (1993), successful implementation of new innovations and development of one's practice require sustained collaboration and reflection at the personal, interpersonal, group and organisational levels of educational institutions. Such collaborative and reflective practices may lead to effective impact on language teachers' practice and development through continuous enquiries and problem-solving activities. In addition, the language teachers' practice usually relies on the type of knowledge and skills and the opportunities they have to sustain their TKB and continue learning (Feiman-Nemser, 2001). Similarly, Bell and Gilbert (2005) reveal that one of the major concerns for most EFL/ESL teachers seeking PD, such as the LEFLUTs, is to keep up-to-date with new developments in ELT and to continue learning. In the previous chapters, it was reported that one of the main obstacles and concerns facing the LEFLUTs appears to be sustaining their PD and keeping up-to-date with the rapidly changing field of English Language Teaching (ELT) (Abosnan, 2016; Aloreobi and Carey, 2017). Therefore, a sustained approach, over time and continuously, might be one option for the LEFLUTs to learn some knowledge and skills in the present, develop it and continue learning.

In order to support the LEFLUTs to collaborate and reflect on their teaching and learning experiences, sustain their PD and implement new innovations, the participants suggested that there should be a coach or mentor to help the LEFLUTs through their PD and teaching practice and I turn to this now.

Coaching/Mentoring

Besides the above features, in their response to the Scenarios One, Four, Six, Seven and Ten, L1, L5, L6 and L7 suggested that teachers' collaboration and adequate support through coaching or mentoring may help the LEFLUTs to develop their knowledge, improve their practice and overcome the problems they face, including the lack of training. Language teachers might benefit from the support and advice of others including their colleagues or other experienced teachers (Little, 1990a; Feiman-Nemser, 2001). As the LEFLUTs are very often isolated and lack appropriate support, the participants seem to recognise the potential support that the LEFLUTs could obtain through coaching and mentoring. The above participants commented that:

group discussions and peer feedback activities (L6, S One).

In the work shop or even in the informal discussion in their room they can assume they are teaching and getting feedback and comment from each other (L1, S Four).

These sessions can also provide peer feedbacks, and thus teachers can share their challenges and solutions with others (L6, S Four).

I may agree if there is adequate time and experienced staff (L5, S Six).

they had to attend some work shop as groups and try to benefit from some experienced teachers to transmit his/her experience of teaching English (L1, S Seven).

My recommendation centres on encouraging them to discuss their classroom problems with their colleagues. They ought to refer to senior colleagues and partners in the course as well (L3, S Seven).

I think one of the most important solutions to overcome these problems is to meet experience teachers (L1, S Ten).

The participants seem to suggest two forms of support that the LEFLUTs might find useful. Firstly, the participants suggested coaching when they talked about friendly support and feedback from colleagues including peer teaching and observation. The participants seem to believe that coaching could provide opportunities for the LEFLUTs to collaborate and reflect on their experiences in a safe and friendly environment, resolve the issues they face

in their daily teaching, and improve their practice. According to Richards and Lockhart (1994), coaching usually involves informal discussions and collaboration between two colleagues of the same experience or formal collaboration between an expert and a less experienced teacher on preparing materials, planning lessons and implementing classroom procedures or teaching techniques. In addition, coaching might also involve two teachers observing each other teaching and providing feedback to each other, or it can also involve two teachers co-teaching a class, observing each other and providing feedback on their teaching (Richards and Lockhart, 1994).

Secondly, the participants suggested LEFLUTs could seek support from more experienced people such as mentors. According to Little (1990a), mentoring involves an experienced and trained teacher with special training and support who helps new or less experienced teachers to learn particular knowledge and skills or develop certain practices. This is a form of coaching that provides guidance and feedback to novice teachers from an experienced mentor who instructs and guides a less experienced teacher (Richards and Lockhart, 1994). The effective impacts of mentoring on the PD of language teachers and the outcomes of CPD activities have been reported in various studies which I presented in Chapter Four.

The participants' responses to the above scenarios indicate that the participants are aware of the LEFLUTs' situation and lack of support and suggest that CPD activities that involve reflection and collaboration delivered through coaching and/or mentoring may help the LEFLUTs to develop their knowledge, improve their practice and overcome some of the contextual factors they face. In the next section, I will explore some of these contextual factors that could prevent the LEFLUTs' innovation or hinder their improvement and development.

6.1.3.3.3 Contextual Factors

The participants identified students' low-level/aptitude and motivation, large classes, limited time, lack of training and low-level inadequate qualifications as the main obstacles facing the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) as shown in Table Four below. Several participants mentioned that these obstacles pose a real challenge to the LEFLUTs' adoption of learner-centred methodologies and implementation of interactive material and activities. They explained that although the LEFLUTs often try

to adopt communicative activities and encourage the students to interact in English during the lectures, they often fail to do so due to the contextual factors summarised below.

Category	Theme	Sub-theme	Evidence from Data	Participants	Scenario
Contextual factors	Aptitude and level of English		<i>to overcome the lack of speaking English that my students have, depends on their current level in English, according to the level of students, the comprehension level of students, the English language of most of the students is inadequate, various proficiency of learning ability of every individual, develop students' level</i>	L1, L4, L6, L8, L10, L12, L14	S One, S Five, S Nine, S Ten
	Motivation		<i>more motivating for both, herself and her students, get his/her students interested, also get them motivated to learn, the students' motivation and initiative to participate, engage them in the process of learning</i>	L9, L11, L13,	S One, S Two, S Three
	Large Classes		<i>it is impossible to break the large class into small classes or into small groups, a real challenge due to the large numbers of the University students in each classroom, the number of students in the class is a significant factor, in such crowded classes, This is one the most prominent challenges facing University teachers it still seems to be the large number of the students, find a way to overcome class size, large classes are mainly affected teachers, They mentioned three major problems, one of which (i.e. Large classes)</i>	L4, L5, L9, L11, L14	S Three, S Four, S Ten

	Time limits		<i>a significant factor which is time which is not sufficient to conduct the whole activities, teacher should organise their times to a degree that can assist them organise and plan their, there is no enough time for such courses, just think how to finish the lesson based on the given time and does not try to change, finding ways of managing their time effectively, is a mix of both contextual obstacles such as limited time</i>	L1, L3, L5, L6, L10, L11, L13, L14	S Three, S Four, S Six, S Eight, S Ten
	Low/inadequate qualifications		<i>lack the adequacy and efficiency in teaching English, teachers are not adequately qualified, Most teachers think that they are qualified to teach, those pretending being qualified are not actually aware, those who think they are highly qualified and know everything, fresh graduated teachers do not come to schools equipped with all necessary skills, they are not qualified enough</i>	L1, L5, L10	S Three, S Five, S Six
	Lack of training		<i>this teacher take an online advanced teaching method course, try watching some online training courses or finding some websites, should provide some regular professional development courses, there is a need for opportunities for professional development, teachers should insist on having sufficient training courses, the university should provide the teachers with developing courses, External sources such as the internet, books and e-journals are very useful</i>	L4, L6, L8, L9, L11, L12, L13, L14	S Five, S Six, S Seven, S Eight

Table 4-Scenario Themes, Category Three: Contextual Factors

Students' low aptitude and level of English Language

As discussed in the previous section, aptitude is an individual difference (ID) that influences the language learners' proficiency and determines their success in learning the language (Ehrman and Oxford, 1995) and that may guide the teachers' choice of materials, activities and methodologies (Gardner, 2001). In their response to several scenarios, L1, L4, L6, L8, L10, L12 and L14 commented as follows with, sometimes, a focus on the level of their students' English language as much as, necessarily, aptitude.

using our mother tongue when necessary to overcome the lack of speaking English that my students have (L1, S One).

the way of introducing the new vocabulary to the students depends on their current level in English (L8, S One).

However, according to the level of students, using the learners' mother tongue when it is inevitable is acceptable and necessary (L10, S One).

I think the teacher opted for such strategy for particular reasons such as the comprehension level of students in the class not being the same (L14, S One).

the English language of most of the students is inadequate and not to the standards (L12, S Five).

teachers must be aware of the various proficiency of learning ability of every individual as failure to do so might result in students' becoming resistant to learn (L6, S Nine).

I would say that the inadequate preparing lessons large classes are mainly affected teachers to develop students' level (L4, S Ten).

The participants' responses suggest that aptitude and a low level of English is a real challenge to the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) and appears to restrict their choices with a perception that aptitude influences their learners' levels of proficiency. Aptitude was also reported in the three previous studies on the LEFLUTs as an obstacle that often influences the Libyan English as foreign language (EFL) learners' progress and proficiency and limits the LEFLUTs' choice of material and methodology (Elabbar, 2011; Suwaed, 2011; Abosnan, 2016). In Chapters Two and Three, it was suggested that language learners' aptitude means that language learners employ various mental processes to attend to the same or different language inputs, and the teachers' role is to provide the learners with a variety of cognitive activities that exploit their existing L2 knowledge and push them beyond their current L2 level (Robinson, 2005). In addition, aptitude and level relates to Vygotsky's theory of Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) (see Chapter Three) which entails that if language learners get

appropriate support, they can accomplish tasks that are beyond their current level and scope of knowledge. So, the language teachers' task is to create appropriate environments and provide opportunities for the learners to communicate and interact in the target language through group and pair work activities which help learners with varied aptitudes, levels of English and diverse individual differences.

In addition, aptitude and level can influence the learners' choice of learning approaches and strategies as discussed in Chapter Three. In this study, several participants suggested that low aptitude appears to encourage surface approaches among the Libyan EFL learners who usually focus on completing the coursebook and passing exams. According to Oxford and Ehrman (1995), aptitude is one of the main individual difference that guides the language learners' approaches and strategies and influences their level of proficiency. Ditcher (2001) also adds that most university teachers report that their students often adopt surface approaches to learning and usually focus on the course main points and passing the exams rather than gaining general knowledge due to their low level of aptitude. The data, too, suggests that aptitude and also a low level of English appear to be a big challenge to the LEFLUTs' effective practice and their learners' motivation and achievement.

Students' Low motivation

Motivation was the second obstacle that the participants believe to hinder Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers' (LEFLUTs) innovation and their students' improvement. As noted, in second language (L2) acquisition, motivation is considered a key factor to successful and effective classroom learning and instruction. According to Dörnyei (2005), motivation is the main individual difference (ID) that triggers L2 learning and sustains its long learning process. In response to the scenarios, several participants explained that:

I stress on the communicative methods she is employing for her classes. They would be more beneficial and more motivating for both, herself and her students (L9, S One).

The teacher should aim to get his/her students interested in the class and should also get them motivated to learn from it (L13, S One).

he would reduce the students' motivation and initiative to participate which subsequently cause boredom (L9, S Two).

And if the focus is for them to learn and actually use the knowledge, then you will find a way to overcome class size and engage them in the process of learning (L11, S Three).

The data indicates that motivation is a concern for the LEFLUTs and their learners. The participants' responses suggest that many Libyan EFL learners may be extrinsically motivated to learn the language. The participants complained that their learners learn English as a course subject to be completed and that they focus on passing exams rather than acquiring the language and improving their proficiency. Although the participants identify the Libyan EFL learners' approach as often a surface approach, and they say that low-motivation is another key impediment, some of them seem to forget that the LEFLUTs' role is to help their learners change and adopt a more effective deep approach. In their study, Elabbar (2011), Suwaed (2011) and Abosnan (2016) reported that motivation was one of the main challenges that appears to have influenced the LEFLUTs' practice and development and the Libyan EFL learners' achievements. In Chapter Two, it was suggested that the language policies which have been developed by the Libyan authorities for several decades appear to have led to the exclusion of intercultural communicative competence dimension from the Libyan ELT material and that this appears to have demotivated Libyan EFL learners (Golino, 1970). Chapter Three suggested that to motivate their learners, language teachers are required to provide and sequence the L2 material and content to reflect the language learners' everyday life and activities (Robinson, 2005). In addition, the language teachers' encouragement and positive expectations about the learners' ability can also motivate the learners to work harder to meet the teachers' expectations and acquire the target language through deeper approaches (Castagnaro, 2006). The data suggests that this aspect of teacher knowledge of learners is a further component of CPD that the LEFLUTs should develop.

In addition to the students' low motivation, the participants showed that large classes is another big challenge that appears to hinder the LEFLUTs' creativity and limit their students' involvement.

Large classes

According to LoCastro (2001), most teachers claim that large classes hinder them from improving their practice and helping their learners to improve their proficiency. It is believed that large classes affect the quality of teaching and students' performance and achievement (Hornsby and Osman, 2014). In this study, the participants also suggest that Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) often turn back to traditional methodologies and their old and trusted approaches, due to large classes.

Commenting on some of the scenarios, participants L4, L5, L9, L11 and L14 complained that:

The approach, mentioned in this scenario can be followed by the teacher as a temporary solution when it is impossible to break the large class into small classes or into small groups (L5, S Three).

I partially agree with this teacher. Employing such approaches recommended by the inspector would probably be a real challenge due to the large numbers of the University students in each classroom (L11, S Three).

I think the number of students in the class is a significant factor in the success or failure of any teaching strategy. Therefore, in such crowded classes the teachers are not able to adopt more communicative approaches (L14, S Three).

This is one the most prominent challenges facing University teachers in general. In my opinion, it still seems to be the large number of the students. If the number of the students in the classroom is ideal, the teacher's task will be much easier and requires less time as learner-centred approaches would smoothly take place (L9, S Four).

find a way to overcome class size and engage them in the process of learning. By giving them the time to think, find, and solve problems they will have the chance to use that knowledge they obtain from you (L11, S Four).

I would say that the inadequate preparing lessons and large classes are mainly affected teachers to develop students' level (L4, S Ten).

L5 summarised the obstacles that the LEFLUTs face as the following:

Large classes, limited time and heavy timetable are all related to the weakness of the yearly preparation (L5, S Ten).

They mentioned three major problems, one of which (i.e. Large classes) is the main issue behind the deterioration of the education process at the Libyan Universities (L9, S Ten).

The above responses indicate that large classes are a significant challenge to the LEFLUTs. Even if they want to adapt their practice and create interactive environments for their learners, they are hindered by large classes. Several studies have reported that large classes are the main factor that appears to influence the LEFLUTs' practice and choice of methodologies and material and the Libyan EFL learners' autonomy and active participation (Orafi and Borg, 2009; Kenan, 2009; Al Rifai, 2010; Elabbar, 2011; Suwaed, 2011; Abosnan, 2016). According to Biggs (1999), teachers often see large classes as an impairment to their students' involvement and active participation. The issue of large classes is one of the main obstacles that hinders the implementation of curriculum reforms

and innovation and limits the learners' participation not only in the Libyan context but also in many EFL contexts. For example, Willis (1996) stated that teachers of large classes might not be able to implement task-based language teaching (TBLT) effectively, to monitor the learners' progress and to provide feedback to the learners. LoCastro (2001) also explored the impacts of large classes on the practice of some teachers and reported that large classes prevented teachers from focusing on speaking, reading and writing tasks, monitoring the students and giving them feedback, creating interactive environment and providing group or pair work activities. In addition, Wyatt and Borg (2011) reported some Omani EFL teachers tried to adapt their practice and implement new curriculum reforms through communicative language teaching (CLT), but they were challenged by the large classes which restricted the teachers' choices and the learners' active participation. Similarly, Bigelow and Walker (2004) reported that teachers of large classes often have little space and limited opportunities to explore their practice and reflect on their experiences.

However, Frederick (1987), Willis (1996), Biggs (1999) and Hornsby and Osman (2014) argue that although most teachers find large classes a real challenge to implement innovation and create interactive environment for their learners, large classes can still be divided into small groups that provide opportunities for the learners to actively participate in the learning process. They suggest that regardless of the class size, language teachers can still divide the class into small groups of 3, 5, or even 10 students provided that there is enough time to monitor the students' learning and provide them with appropriate feedback. Although the data indicates that large classes is a big challenge for the LEFLUTs, the above literature suggests that the LEFLUTs could still provide a more effective environment for their learners and adopt more interactive activities. Therefore, teaching large classes through interactive activities might be one topic of the LEFLUTs' CPD material.

In addition to the above obstacles, the participants suggested that time constraints encourage most LEFLUTs to adopt teacher-centred methodologies and prevent the learners from interacting with each other in pairs or groups and so I discuss time constraints below.

Time constraints

According to Biggs (1999), time often restricts the practice of teachers of large classes to traditional methodologies and classroom arrangement such as lecturing. In their responses

to several scenarios, L1, L3, L5, L6, L10, L11, L13 and L14 explained that:

It is well known that most of the activities used by Libyan teachers are teacher-centred. I agree with this teacher that dividing large classes into groups and pairs could be ineffective because of the short time and difficulty to follow them up and give them feedback (L10, S Three).

the teacher also mentioned a significant factor which is time. for instance in my home country the time allocated for the class is only 45 minutes which is not sufficient to conduct the whole activities needed in a language class (L14, S Three).

teacher should organise their times to a degree that can assist them organise and plan their lessons (L6, S Four).

I may agree if there is adequate time and experienced staff to run such courses but in the case there is no enough time for such courses (L5, S Six).

the other who is teaching writing just think how to finish the lesson based on the given time and does not try to change her way of teaching (L1, S Eight).

The other possible solution is for them to try to work out a systematic way of reducing class size, finding ways of managing their time effectively (L11, S Ten).

I would say that the problem is a mix of both contextual obstacles such as large classes, limited time (L13, S Ten).

The above responses suggest that inadequate time is a real challenge for the LEFLUTs who struggle with time to find appropriate materials, prepare their lessons, manage their classes and provide appropriate activities for their learners to use the target language and interact with each other. Time constraints also present an obstacle to other EFL teachers in other contexts to implement collaborative and interactive activities and provide learners with effective learning environments. For example, Musthafa (2001) found that many Indonesian EFL teachers refrain from implementing communicative language teaching (CLT) and fail to create communicative environment for their learners to interact in English due to time constraints. Hassan (2013) also explored the perceptions of Bangladeshi EFL teachers about the implementations of CLT and reported that time constraints prevented Bangladeshi EFL teachers from implementing CLT.

The above data suggests that the LEFLUTs' CPD material should focus on time constraints, which is one aspect of classroom management, and help the LEFLUTs manage their time effectively. However, beside the impact of time constraints on the LEFLUTs' practices and their learners' outcomes, the participants also suggested low and inadequate qualifications as another obstacle that appears to hinder their effective teaching.

Low-level qualification

The participants mentioned that Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) tend to adopt traditional methodologies such as the Grammar Translation Method (GTM) and Audiolingual Method (ALM) and often struggle to help their learners to improve their outcomes because they are simply not adequately qualified. According to Parker (2004), although statistics indicate that there are enough qualified language teachers around the world, many language teachers have low-level qualifications and have insufficient access to training programmes. In other words, although language departments and centres graduate many language teachers every year, these teachers may not be adequately qualified for classroom practices and they may also have restricted opportunities for training. The participants also suggest that some of the LEFLUTs are unqualified to teach. For example, they explained that:

Most of us (Libyan teachers) lack the adequacy and efficiency in teaching English in practical, effective and interesting way (L10, S Three).

In some cases, teachers are not adequately qualified to teach using a developed and professional approach (L5, S Five).

Most teachers think that they are qualified to teach and they do not need any professional programmes to develop their skills, but the fact is that teachers can improve their knowledge if they attend some training programmes and try to present their way of teaching (L1, S Six).

Being qualified teachers does not imply covering and managing all modern teaching strategies. It is apparent to me that those pretending being qualified are not actually aware of the new innovation of teaching policies (L6, S Six).

All of us need training, even those who think they are highly qualified and know everything about their courses (L10, S Six).

It goes without saying that fresh graduated teachers do not come to schools equipped with all necessary skills to handle all the issues may arise in the classes. This may lead to shatter their confidence and may to failure (L14, S Six).

Teaching qualifications come second place. Some teachers are struggling with their classes because simply they are not qualified enough (L9, S Eight).

The responses of the above participants indicate that although the LEFLUTs hold relevant qualification in various English related subjects, these LEFLUTs seem to be inadequately qualified to teach. This suggests that the English departments and teacher preparation centres may not be effective enough to prepare qualified Libyan EFL teachers who can

teach effectively and meet the demands of their profession. According to Freeman (2002) and Hedgcock (2002), when novice EFL teachers start their profession, they sometimes discover that they lack adequate knowledge and skills because their teacher preparation programme has not adequately prepared them with the appropriate knowledge and skills for effective classroom practices. In Chapter Three, it was reported that the lack of qualified Libyan EFL teachers has been a big challenge to many Libyan governments for several decades (Metz, 1989; Vandewalle, 2012; Bruce, 2015). This lack of qualified Libyan EFL teachers appears to hinder the attempts made by the Libyan Ministry of Education to implement new reforms and material for last decades (International Monetary Fund, 2012; Najeeb, 2013; Abukhattala, 2016).

In addition to their undergraduate programmes, the participants also suggested that some LEFLUTs are inadequately qualified to teach due to the lack of training activities.

Lack of training

As discussed in the previous chapters, the Libyan teachers in higher education institutions (HEIs), including Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs), do not receive any in-service teacher development and education (INSET) or pre-service training programmes that focus on teaching methodologies or classroom practices (see Chapter Four). As a result, the LEFLUTs often start teaching based on their own experiences as both teachers and learners of the language themselves. Several participants state that the lack of training programmes hinders the LEFLUTs' innovation and improvement of practice. As a result, the LEFLUTs follow their own paths to their professional development (PD) such as watching activities on YouTube, searching online resources and reading materials from the library. For example, L4, L6, L8, L9, L11, L12, L13 and L14 proposed that:

I would recommend that this teacher take an online advanced teaching method course (L8, S Five).

They can try watching some online training courses or finding some websites which explain the different methods of teaching. Also the education ministry should provide some regular professional development courses for teachers (L12, S Five).

there is a need for opportunities for professional development (L4, S Six).

I agree with the first group who said that "Some of the LEFLUTs think that there is a need for opportunities for professional development (L12, S Six).

The only thing that I can recommend at the moment is that teachers should insist on having sufficient training courses (L6, S Seven).

I would recommend that the university should provide the teachers with developing courses on an annual basis, for instance (L9, S Seven).

it is highly recommended that they demand suitable training to be fully equipped with skills and strategies that can be used in the classroom (L11, S Seven).

External sources such as the internet, books and e-journals are very useful if teachers require any further support when training courses are absent (L6, S Eight).

In Chapters Two and Four, it was reported that the LEFLUTs sometimes refrain from using CLT and turn instead to traditional methodologies due to lack of training. In addition, Elabbar (2011), Suwaed (2011) and Abosnan (2016) found that a lack of training is one of the main challenges facing the LEFLUTs to develop their knowledge, improve their practice and enhance their students' learning experiences. According to Anderson (1993), many language teachers often fail to provide effective environment for their learners and implement CLT due to lack of sufficient training. Based on these findings, this study suggests that the LEFLUTs should be provided with appropriate CPD activities to help them to develop their knowledge, improve their practice and their students' outcomes and overcome some of the issues they face, including large classes and time constraints.

6.1.4 Section Summary

The scenario data shows that although some Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) possess various knowledge types, the participants believe that the LEFLUTs often struggle to prepare and adapt appropriate material and methodology that suits their teaching situation and meets their learners' needs and that they are often constrained in improving their practice due to several contextual factors. The data suggests that classroom teaching techniques and management skills, learner knowledge and curriculum knowledge are key elements for the LEFLUTs' professional development (PD). In addition, the data indicates that learners' low-aptitude, poor levels of English and motivation, large classes, limited time, lack of training and low-level qualification may hinder the LEFLUTs' efforts to create effective learning environments for their learners and to apply learner-centred approaches and techniques.

Although the scenarios indicated some aspects of the LEFLUTs' TKB and their perceived PD needs, the data does not provide enough information to help suggest appropriate

LEFLUTs' CPD material content and delivery. Therefore, I conducted the focus group and gathered more data from the LEFLUTs on the content and delivery of their CPD material and this is presented and analysed in the next section.

6.2 Focus Group

6.2.1 Introduction

Like interviews, focus groups can be structured with prepared questions and checklists or unstructured with unprepared questions and minimal intervention from the researcher (Bell, 2014). As explained in Chapter Five, the focus group was conducted in this study to obtain more insights from the participants on their views about the content and delivery of Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers' (LEFLUTs) CPD material. The focus group was guided by the following prompts that emerged from the scenarios data:

1. your views and perception about the skills or knowledge the LEFLUTs need to develop.
2. your views and perceptions about the delivery of training material: taught courses, workshops, etc.
3. your views about the features you wish to include in the training material.
4. your views and perceptions about the timing and delivery of CPD material.

6.2.2 The participants

The focus group involved four Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) who were doing PhD studies in the UK during the study. All four LEFLUTs were actively involved in the focus group for 30 minutes with more or less equal participation. The number of participants was limited due to the current situation in Libya and due to the small number of LEFLUTs studying in the UK. The focus group was conducted in one of the private study rooms at University of Glasgow which was organised by the postgraduate students' office. During the focus group, I took the role of moderator introducing the participants to each other, explaining the aim of the focus group and guiding the conversation around the above prompts.

6.2.3 Framework for Focus Group Analysis

Having finished the focus group, I immediately transcribed the audio-recorded focus group and the focus group data was coded and analysed using “Framework” which is defined by Ritchie and Spencer (1994) as an analytical tool that consists of three key steps: familiarisation, identifying a thematic framework, and mapping and interpretation.

6.2.3.1 Familiarisation

In familiarisation, the researcher prepares and codes the data for analysis and notices key issues or themes by listening to the audio-recorded data, reading transcripts and studying the accompanying notes (Ritchie and Spencer, 1994). Once the focus group was completed and the data was obtained, I listened to the audio-recorded focus group and transcribed it to a text. According to Rabiee (2004), although the data analysed in focus groups is the spoken or written language derived from the discussion, the researchers’ reflection on the nonverbal communication and body language expressed by the participants can also provide a valuable source for data analysis. As I was transcribing the data, I checked my notes, tried to recall the discussion at the same time and added my own notes and comments based on other nonverbal communications from the participants. For example, when the participants talked about the obstacle of students’ low motivation, their body language and face expressions indicated that students’ low motivation is a big concern to them than expressed by their comments.

Having transcribed the whole audio-recorded focus group into a written text, then I started coding the data applying the same coding principle as with the scenarios. To code the focus group data, I followed the same coding system I applied with the scenarios. I referred to the participants with “L” (LEFLUT) and assigned a number to each one from 1 to 4 and for myself I used R for researcher. As I had the data transcribed and assigned to each participant, I then organised the data and relevant information under each prompt used to conduct the focus group. In doing so, I was able to identify key issues and themes and familiarise myself with the data and findings. Organising and coding the data in the way described above provided initial thoughts about key themes and issues and prepared the data for the second stage of data analysis, which I discuss next.

6.2.3.2 Identifying a thematic framework

At this stage I followed the same procedure as with the scenarios. I explored the data and identified the most recurrent and key themes within the data. In doing so, I identified four main categories under which other themes and sub-themes could be classified. These four categories are content of CPD, features of CPD, delivery of CPD and contextual factors. I organised these categories in four separate tables indicating the category, the theme, the sub-theme, evidence from the data and the participants who mentioned it as shown in Tables Four, Five, Six and Seven below.

The identification of thematic framework through coding, summarising and categorising the data provided me with initial thoughts and insights about the participants' views and perceptions about the content, features and delivery of the LEFLUTs' CPD material and clarified many of the participants' responses to the scenarios. Above all, this stage prepared the data for the data analysis phase, which I present next.

6.2.3.3 Mapping and Interpretation

Like the data from the scenarios, my engagement with the data in the previous two stages suggests that the focus group data be analysed in relation to four key issues: content of CPD, features of CPD, delivery of CPD, contextual factors as shown in Tables Five, Six and Seven below. In addition, the data here repeats earlier scenario data in terms of the themes deduced and literature reported. As a result, I will present and discuss the focus group data without repeating the same literature or previous studies.

6.2.3.3.1 Content of CPD

In the focus groups, the participants identified more precisely what skills and knowledge they think the LEFLUTs require to develop and improve. They identified specific aspects of the GPK including teaching approaches, knowledge about learners, classroom management and material development and design as shown in Table Five below. They seemed to believe that these knowledge types and skills may help the LEFLUTs to improve their practice and their students learning and overcome some of the problems they face such as students' low aptitude, a low level of English and motivation.

Category	Theme	Sub-theme	Evidence from Data	Participants
Content of CPD	GPK	Teaching Approaches Knowledge	<i>grammar translation method, it is a way of teaching the Qur'an, bottom-up skills of reading, top-down skills of reading, one path in teaching method, an approach called reciprocal teaching, group work or pair work, create an interactive in the class to communicate with their students,</i>	L1, L2, L4
		Learners Knowledge	<i>how they deal with the students, students I think come from different environments and different places, their behaviour is different, and their mood is sometimes different, earn about the learners themselves their abilities and how to manage and deal with them, difficulty in dealing with the students, knowledge about the students how they behave, how they learn, how they communicate how they participate, how to communicate with their students</i>	L1, L2, L4
		Classroom Management Knowledge	<i>a problem of managing the classroom, think about classroom management, need to develop in their classroom is one important think is how they deal with the students, there is a problem of managing the classroom, how to communicate with their students...create an interactive in the class</i>	L1, L2, L3, L4
		Curriculum Knowledge	<i>teacher need to know how think about how they use the material, the teacher or course developers to make or build an appropriate course, provide new material up-to-date materials not stick to one specific material, depends on the curriculum that the teacher is using; it must include group work or pair work</i>	L1, L2, L3, L4

Table 5- Focus Group Themes: Content of CPD

Knowledge about teaching approaches

The participants argued that Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) should develop their knowledge about teaching approaches and methodologies to improve their practice. According to them, the LEFLUTs' choice of material and methodology which are usually based on traditional methodologies appear to contribute to the students' low motivation and they suggested alternative interactive approaches and activities. For example, L1, L2 and L4 explained that:

the teachers are using I cannot say it is a grammar translation method but it is a way of teaching the Qur'an... focus on bottom-up skills of reading, top-down skills of reading (L1).

I think the students just follow one path in teaching method in the department (L2).

there is an approach called reciprocal teaching which means the teacher gives the students a chance to centre the class and give them a small paragraph to find some question the students start reading the paragraph and ask the students and then the teacher reply to the students and vice versa. To let all the students participated in the class... it must include group work or pair work...it is important for them to create an interactive in the class to communicate with their students (L4).

The participants' responses suggest that the LEFLUTs might require more knowledge and skills about various teaching approaches and methodologies in order to address the learners' low-motivation and provide an effective environment for the learners to use the target language and to interact with each other. Interactive, learner-centred, teaching methodology was also mentioned in the participants' response to the scenarios. This suggests that learner-centred methodology might be considered a key element of the LEFLUTs' knowledge base and their CPD material. In Chapters Two and Three and earlier here, I reported that the LEFLUTs' practice is usually based on teacher-centred or traditional methodologies such as the grammar translation method (GTM), direct method (DM) and audiolingual method (ALM) which appears to have encouraged transmissive learning and limited the students' autonomy and collaborative learning (Abukhattala, 2016; Abosnan, 2016; Aloreobi and Carey, 2017). In addition, it was suggested that the LEFLUTs' choice of material and methodology often encouraged surface approaches among their students, that is to complete the coursebooks and pass the exams (Orafi and Borg, 2009; Al Rifai, 2010). Although teacher-centred methodologies appear to be the dominant approaches among most LEFLUTs, the focus group suggests that there appear to be other opportunities to encourage the LEFLUTs through appropriate CPD activities to

adopt more learner-centred approaches that promote the students' active involvement and participation.

Besides the knowledge of learner-centred methodology, the focus group participants also suggested that they should have adequate knowledge about their learners to implement more interactive methodologies.

Knowledge about learners

In addition to learner-centred methodology, the focus group participants suggested that Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) should develop their knowledge about learners in order to improve their practice and enhance their students' achievements. The data here repeats earlier scenario data, so I will focus on key issues and report main findings. L2, L3 and L4 explained that knowledge about learners is a fundamental element of the LEFLUTs' knowledge base that could help them improve their practice and their students' learning and overcome some of the obstacles they face.

I think the skills and knowledge that the LEFLUTs need to develop in their classroom is one important thing is how they deal with the students... The students I think come from different environments and different places. So their behaviour is different and their mood is sometimes different (L2).

this is one just one thing that teachers need to learn about the learners themselves their abilities and how to manage and deal with them... As we know we sometimes face myself we face different difficulty in dealing with the students (L2).

Because the knowledge about the students how they behave, how they learn, how they communicate how they participate... So knowledge is actually based on the students themselves and that is another big issue or big constraints for the teachers now a days in the Libyan context... one of the responsibilities of the teacher is to make students motivated as much as he can (L3).

Then the knowledge the EFL teachers need to develop is how to communicate with their students (L4).

In keeping with the scenario data, the focus group data suggests that the LEFLUTs seem to lack adequate GPK that they often implement their material through predictable traditional ways and follow fixed routines and instructions. In doing so, the LEFLUTs may forget that their classes contain students with diverse individual differences (IDs). In addition, the LEFLUTs' fixed routines may have meant students were not given effective learning opportunities and this may have contributed to the students' low motivation and learning

outcomes. The participants emphasised that the Libyan EFL students have low aptitude and motivation and they think that the LEFLUTs seem unaware of their students' IDs. According to Fernández-Balboa and Stiehl (1995), teachers need to acquire enough knowledge about their learners in order to effectively adapt and implement their material and methodology and improve their learners' achievement. Learner knowledge, namely motivation, aptitude and learning strategies, was also emphasised by the participants in the scenarios. This suggests that learner knowledge is a big challenge to the LEFLUTs and should be provided in their CPD material.

Classroom management

As in scenario data, the focus group participants emphasised classroom management a fundamental element for Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers' (LEFLUTs) knowledge base and their CPD material. According to the participants, traditional approaches and students' low aptitude, motivation and outcomes are partly due to the LEFLUTs' lack of adequate knowledge of classroom management. Participants stated:

there is a problem of managing the classroom... we need to think about classroom management (L1).

I think the skills and knowledge that the LEFLUTs need to develop in their classroom is one important think is how they deal with the students... to teach students how to behave sometimes or how to handle with their teachers management (L2).

there is a problem of managing the classroom plus the experience of the teacher (L3).

Then the knowledge the EFL teachers need to develop is how to communicate with their students...create an interactive in the class ... (L4).

The above participants' responses suggest that classroom management appears to be a concern to most LEFLUTs. Classroom management was also a key theme identified by the scenario participants and identified in three previous studies on the LEFLUTs (Elabbar, 2011; Suwaed, 2011; Abosnan, 2016). This suggests that classroom management appears to be a key component of the LEFLUTs' knowledge base and their CPD material that they need to develop in order to improve their teaching and their students' achievements. According to Berliner (1988), classroom management is a fundamental knowledge for novice language teachers that may help them to develop other aspects of instruction including material presentations and teaching approaches and techniques. It goes beyond

seating arrangements and lesson planning and involves rules and procedures that identify the role of teachers and learners and create safe environment for learning (Marzano *et al.*, 2005). As there are no INSET or pre-service training programmes or any other PD activities provided for the LEFLUTs, the participants' data suggests that the LEFLUTs lack effective classroom management knowledge and skills.

Knowledge about curriculum

Beside the above knowledge and skills, the focus group participants mentioned that Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) require appropriate knowledge about material development and design which the participants believe could help the LEFLUTs to motivate their students and create effective learning environments. L1, L2, L3, and L4 suggested that the LEFLUTs' inadequate materials and methods of implementation appear to be the main contributor to most Libyan EFL students' low aptitude and motivation. According to them, the LEFLUTs are required to develop their curriculum knowledge and improve their representation skills in order to be able to prepare and adapt their existent material and increase their learners' motivation and outcomes. These participants proposed that:

the curriculum designer or teacher need to know how think about how they use the material and evaluate the students (L2).

the teacher or course developers to make or build an appropriate course design that define the skills for those who want to teach those students...one of the responsibilities of the teacher is to make students motivated... provide new material up-to-date materials not stick to one specific material (L3).

it also depends on the curriculum that the teacher is using; it must include group work or pair work. Then it is important for them to create an interactive in the class to communicate with their students (L4).

Material development and evaluation refers to the teachers' understanding about the concepts and principles of material design and the appropriate representation of material to the students in comprehensible ways (Shulman, 1986; Even, 1993). In the Libyan context, the English Language Teaching (ELT) material is developed and provided by the Libyan Ministry of Education, but at university the LEFLUTs often prepare their own teaching material based on their own experiences as teachers and learners of the language themselves. For example, they sometimes adapt the same material they have studied at their undergraduate study, seek help from other colleagues, download material from the

internet use resources from the Library or find previously used material from their department. However, I suggest that these resources may not help the LEFLUTs to prepare and implement effective material that suits their students and meet their needs. In some situations, the ELT material is usually the only source for language input that provides a systematic structure for the teachers and learners and guides language learning, interaction and classroom instruction (Hutchinson and Torres, 1994; Crawford, 2002). The LEFLUTs' inadequate knowledge and inappropriate choices of material appear to be a major contributor to the Libyan EFL learners' low motivation and levels. This suggests that knowledge of the curriculum should be a key element in the LEFLUTs' CPD material.

In addition to the above topics, the focus group participants also talked about some key features of CPD that they think should be introduced to the LEFLUTs in their CPD material. I present these feature in the next section below.

6.2.3.3.2 Features of CPD

The focus group participants mentioned and re-emphasised collaboration, reflection, sustainability and coaching as key aspects for Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers' (LEFLUTs) professional development (PD) and their CPD material as indicated in Table Six below. These features have also been identified in the CPD literature (see Chapter Four) and the scenario data as key features for the language teachers and their PD, including the LEFLUTs (see Section 6.1 above).

Category	Theme	Sub-theme	Evidence from Data	Participants
Features of CPD		Collaboration	<i>to encourage teachers meet monthly or after semester to discuss, some teachers because of lack of interaction with the management or the administration, if you open a discussion forum for the teachers themselves like once a week</i>	L2, L3
		Reflection	<i>there is no observation, also to encourage teachers meet monthly or after semester to discuss, also if you open a discussion forum, discuss their experiences and share ideas, so that teacher can reflect</i>	L1, L2, L3

		Coaching Mentoring	<i>the head of the department should observe the teachers carefully, the same subject is delivered by two teachers instead of one, peer teaching or co-teaching because as you know teachers can learn from their teaching</i>	L1, L2, L4
		Sustainability	<i>develop their way of teaching and update the things they are teaching, provide new material up-to-date materials not stick to one specific material for all the time, the department or university need to after each semester deliver a survey for the learners not to assess the teacher ability but the satisfaction with the material, a feedback sheet to give our opinion about the course... this is part of her development, but there is no progress there is no continuity of professional development, ongoing workshops and observation</i>	L1, L2, L3

Table 6- Focus Group Themes: Features of CPD

Collaboration

As Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) lack formal CPD activities, the focus group data indicates that collaboration might offer opportunities to the LEFLUTs to develop their knowledge and improve their teaching practice. The focus group participants suggested that collaboration between the LEFLUTs or the LEFLUTs and other individuals could provide LEFLUTs with the support they need. For example, L2 and L3 proposed that:

also to encourage teachers meet monthly or after semester to discuss...some teachers because of lack of interaction with the management or the administration... (L2).

also if you open a discussion forum for the teachers themselves like once a week to discuss their experiences and share ideas (L3).

These two participants believed that collaboration could help the LEFLUTs to change their attitudes about learning and teaching and improve their practice. According to Little (2002) and Weiner (2002), collaboration supports language teachers to improve their practice, change their attitudes and increase their confidence. Like the scenario data, the focus group participants also suggest that the LEFLUTs' professional development (PD) could be

fostered through collaborative CPD activities. In Chapters Two and Three, it was reported that the LEFLUTs may have developed teaching and learning cultures based on their personal and professional experiences through unstructured and individual approaches. The focus group participants seemed to reconfirm and acknowledge the negative impacts of this teaching and learning culture among the LEFLUTs and they suggested alternative approaches through collaborative activities. In Chapter Four, I reported several studies which found that when collaboration was promoted among language teachers, those teachers became more aware of their teaching practice and students' learning, shared experience and adopted teaching techniques from each other, developed awareness of their PD and enhanced their understanding about their teaching practice and profession (Farrell, 2018). This suggests that collaboration is also essential for the LEFLUTs that they are required to adopt and develop and that should be included in their CPD material.

Collaboration was not the only feature that the focus group participants think is fundamental for the LEFLUTs and their PD, with some participants suggesting reflection as another CPD feature that may support them.

Reflection

In addition to collaboration, the focus group participants suggested reflection as a key feature for Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) and their CPD material. For example, L1, L2 and L3 seemed to suggest that reflection may help the LEFLUTs to develop their knowledge and improve their teaching practice.

the teachers who graduated from the university and study the teaching methodology for two or three years, most of them are not qualified to teach. I do not know why may be because there is no observation (L1).

also to encourage teachers meet monthly or after semester to discuss (L2).

also if you open a discussion forum for the teachers themselves like once a week to discuss their experiences and share ideas (L3).

The above participants suggest that the LEFLUTs should reflect on and share their experiences so that they can learn from their experiences and hence improve their practices. The focus group participants suggested two reflective approaches for the LEFLUTs: discussion groups and observation which I discussed in Chapter Four. This indicates that reflection may encourage the LEFLUTs to critically think about their practice, monitor their development and evaluate their teaching and their students' learning. As reported in Chapter Four and in the scenario data, reflection can help language

teachers, such as the LEFLUTs, to think about their practice and reflect on their experiences rather than follow predicted and intuitive teaching practice (Richards (1990). Thus, the CPD literature and the research data suggest that reflection should be a key feature for the LEFLUTs and their CPD.

The focus group participants recommended discussion groups and observation as two possible approaches to promote reflection and collaboration among the LEFLUTs rather than writing journals and portfolios perhaps because these former approaches are not common to the LEFLUTs in the Libyan context. Second, Chapters Two, Three and Four suggest that even though the LEFLUTs seem unaware of their reflection, they often do reflect on their experiences through unstructured discussions and observation. This might explain why the participants in this study suggest discussion groups and observation rather than the other reflective approaches.

As the LEFLUTs lack appropriate support, the focus group participants suggested that the LEFLUTs could benefit from coaching and mentoring activities to help them develop their knowledge and improve their practice.

Coaching/mentoring

The focus group participants suggest that coaching and mentoring could support the LEFLUTs to develop their knowledge and improve their teaching practice. Both coaching and mentoring aim to support language teachers to develop their knowledge and skills and improve their practice. Like the scenario data, the focus group participants suggested that the LEFLUTs require support from a coach such as a colleague or a mentor such as an experienced teacher in order to explore and adapt their practice. For example, L1 proposed mentoring as one way to help the LEFLUTs implement their material and innovation effectively. L1 commented as follows:

the head of the department should observe the teachers carefully (L1).

In addition to mentoring, two participants suggested peer coaching as another way to support the LEFLUTs to develop their knowledge and improve their practice. These participants commented as follows:

the same subject is delivered by two teachers instead of one. I think this will help somehow (L2).

peer teaching or co-teaching because as you know teachers can learn from their teaching (L4).

The participants' responses suggest that the LEFLUTs may currently perform in isolation and lack appropriate support to help them to develop their knowledge and improve their practice. In addition, the participants believe that coaching and mentoring could provide opportunities for the LEFLUTs to support each other, observe and provide feedback to each other, explore their knowledge and improve their practice. Although they did not use these terms perhaps because these are not common practices in Libya, the participants' responses suggest that the participants are referring to coaching and mentoring when they talked about co-teaching and observation. This suggests that coaching and mentoring should be key elements of the LEFLUTs CPD material. According to Farrell (2007), coaching provides language teachers with opportunities to explore their practice and identify potential areas for improvement and help them to learn from each other. On the other hand, Farrell (2018) states that mentoring helps language teachers to focus on their practice and their students' learning and increases their confidence and collaboration.

Besides collaboration, reflection, coaching and mentoring, the focus group participants indicated that these features might not be effective unless they sustained over time

Sustainability

In the focus group, the participants proposed sustainability as a key feature for effective teaching practice and CPD activities that may support Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) to continue learning and sustain their development. Although they did not mention it explicitly, the participants referred to sustainability with ongoing, continuity, always and up-to-date which mean sustaining learning and practice. For example, L2 argues that:

some training classes to encourage the students just to follow one path in teaching method in the department. I think teachers also need to follow the subject they are teaching not just teach the same thing for example five, ten years. They need to develop their way of teaching and update the things they are teaching (L2).

L2 seems to suggest that the LEFLUTs should always adapt and evaluate their material in order to sustain their practice and overcome some of the teaching issues they face such as students' motivation and surface approach. Commenting on L2's suggestion, L3 also believe that material development could support the LEFLUTs sustain their practice and motivate their learners adopt more deep approaches to learning. L3 agree that:

teacher is to make students motivated as much as he can like my colleagues just said to provide new material up-to-date materials not stick to one specific material for all the time.

L2 and L3 seem to suggest some reflective approaches to encourage the LEFLUTs to think about their practice, avoid predictable techniques and fixed routines and continue developing. As discussed in Chapter Four and earlier this chapter, reflective practice activities encourage language teachers to consider their practice and adapt their teaching approaches and material which helps them to sustain their development. In addition, L2 and L3 suggested end-of-semester surveys in which the students give their feedback on the course and about teaching and learning to encourage the LEFLUTs develop their knowledge and improve their practice.

the department or university need to after each semester deliver a survey for the learners not to assess the teacher ability but the satisfaction with the material. Not the teacher or his knowledge but the way he delivered the lesson (L2).

I experienced this when I did my master degree. When of the teachers who taught us gave us a feedback sheet to give our opinion about the course... this is part of her development (L3).

L2 and L3 believe that end-of-semester surveys can encourage the LEFLUTs to compete and do more on their teaching, as they think. These two participants seem to talk about students' feedback as one approach to help the LEFLUTs to evaluate their teaching and enhance their practice. According to Biggs and Tang (2011), students' feedback can help novice teachers whose teaching is often guided by impulse and intuition, such as the LEFLUTs, to evaluate the effectiveness of their material and practice. I discuss students' feedback in more depth in the next section as it emerged as a basic theme in the fieldnotes data. In Chapter Four, it was suggested that reflective practice, especially discussion groups, and collaboration can help language teachers to sustain their development and improve their practice (Webster-Wright 2009, Opfer et al. 2011 and Hanks 2015).

In addition, as I shall show in the following sections, sustainability may also be supported by students' feedback (Biggs & Tang 2011). This is because reflection, collaboration and students' feedback would require the LEFLUTs to continuously and critically think about their knowledge and practice and seek professional development.

In addition, L1 believes that the main obstacle facing the LEFLUTs was not only the lack of CPD activities but also the sustainability of development. L1 explains that:

They have the experience, they learn in the university, but there is no progress there is no continuity of professional development.

To overcome this issue, L1 suggested that the LEFLUTs should be provided with periodical CPD activities.

ongoing workshops and observation (L1).

The participants' responses suggest that sustainability is a key concern to the LEFLUTs and their PD. In Chapter Four, it was reported that the LEFLUTs lack CPD activities, usually adopt fixed practices and techniques and do not consider or reflect on their practices. As a result, some focus group participants (see for example L1 above) explained that the LEFLUTs seem to burn out and stop developing i.e. do not sustain their PD. The focus group data suggest that sustainability is major concern for the LEFLUTs and their PD that should be addressed by their CPD material. Hopefully, sustainability may help the LEFLUTs to develop their knowledge, improve their practice and continue developing.

Delivery of CPD

CPD delivery refers to how the CPD activity is implemented and significantly impacts the participants' ability to learn (Cooper, 2004). Formal and informal CPD activities can be provided to participants through pre-service or INSET programmes defined in Chapter One and discussed in Chapter Four. Pre-service CPD activities provide language teachers with the required knowledge and skills to teach effectively (Deneme and Çelik, 2017). In contrast, INSET CPD activities are continuous lifelong activities that provide language teachers with opportunities to continue developing and keep-up-to-date with the rapidly developing field of English Language Teaching (ELT) (Fullan and Fullan, 1993). When I asked the participants about the delivery of the LEFLUTs' CPD material, the focus group participants suggested that the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) be offered CPD activities before they start teaching and while they are teaching to have more opportunities for collaboration and reflection on their experiences and allow adequate time for the CPD evaluation as shown in Table Seven below.

Category	Theme	Sub-theme	Evidence from Data	Participants
Delivery of CPD		Pre-service	<i>we need to focus on the pre-service training, before going to the classroom, most of them are not qualified to teach...I think workshops will work in this case, I think before they teach, or you can use it at different times in different periods you use pre-service this time</i>	L1, L2, L3
		INSET	<i>I think the administration need to organise workshop and some training classes to encourage the students just to follow one path, then you use in-service and so on</i>	

Table 7- Focus Group Themes: Delivery of CPD

One participant stressed that the LEFLUTs usually struggle to manage their classrooms and implement effective materials and adopt interactive methodologies due to the lack of pre-service training. This participant suggested that:

we need to focus on the pre-service training before going to the classroom (L1).

L1 added that the LEFLUTs require pre-service CPD activities because they are not qualified enough to teach and claimed that when the LEFLUTs start teaching they found themselves unable to cope with the classroom situations and meet their student's needs. As a result, L1 suggested that the LEFLUTs should have pre-service workshops before they start teaching:

the teachers who graduated from the university and study the teaching methodology for two or three years, most of them are not qualified to teach...I think workshops will work in this case (L1).

In addition, when L2 and L3 suggested INSET CPD activities, L1 insisted that we should only focus on pre-service CPD activities. He said that:

I think before they teach (L1).

As reported in the scenario data, L2 explained that the Libyan EFL students usually follow surface approaches to their learning (focus on exams) due to the LEFLUTs' methodology and suggested that the LEFLUTs should be provided with INSET CPD activities in order to encourage their students to adopt deep approaches to learning. L2 explained that:

sometimes they (the LEFLUTs) encourage students just to focus on passing the exams... I think the administration need to organise workshop and some training classes to encourage the students just to follow one path in teaching method in the department (L2).

However, when I asked the participants about the best time for the LEFLUTs to receive the CPD activities at the beginning, during or after they have started teaching, both L2 and L3 suggested that that pre-service and INSET CPD activities would be very beneficial for the LEFLUTs. They commented that:

or you can use it at different times in different periods you use pre-service this time, then you use in-service and so on. So, you do not stick to one mode so that teacher can reflect (L2).

I would see having workshop in all these time slots are important: pre-service, in-service and post-service are important. The teachers can then reflect on their experience (L3).

Regardless of the method of delivery, the focus group discussion suggests that CPD activities are a major concern to most LEFLUTs who seek support and want to improve their practice and their students' achievements. According to Amadi (2013) and Deneme and Çelik (2017), pre-service and INSET CPD activities aim to provide prospective or in-profession language teachers with the resources, knowledge, skills and support in order to develop new or different capacities and improve their practice and their students' learning. The participants' responses suggest that the LEFLUTs seek CPD not only to develop their knowledge, increase their awareness and improve their practice but also to improve their students' outcomes and resolve some of the problems they face in their teaching.

Chapters Two, Three and Four suggested that the lack of training or any other support appear to be the main challenge facing the LEFLUTs. As a result, the focus group participants suggest that CPD activities would be very important for the LEFLUTs regardless of the time and mode of delivery.

6.2.3.3.3 Contextual Factors

The focus group shows that Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) believe that their inadequate general pedagogical knowledge (GPK) and their choice of material and methodology appear to have negative influences on their students' motivation and learning approaches. According to the participants, the Libyan EFL learners' low motivation and surface approaches to learning are the main challenges facing the LEFLUTs.

Category	Theme	Sub-theme	Evidence from Data	Participants
Contextual Factors		Motivation	<i>the students being reluctant to learn or willingness to learn, that great issue for teachers that they should take into consideration, reluctant to the students willingness to study, they are not interested, it depends on the teachers' encouragement to teach, because those students are resistant to learn, one of the responsibilities of the teacher is to make students motivated, it also depends on the curriculum that the teacher is using, The teacher also can nominate some students, This is a good way for the teacher and for the students to motivate them</i>	L1, L2, L3, L4
		Learner Surface Approach	<i>you see that their main focus is just to focus on passing the subject without gaining any knowledge, the teacher method is to prepare them to pass the exams, they just focus on passing the subject ok, you will find that do not focus on just gaining knowledge they just want to pass the subject, they encourage students just to focus on passing the exams</i>	L1, L2,

Table 8- Focus Group Themes: Contextual Factors

Students' low motivation

In common with the scenario data, the focus group data indicates that students' low motivation appears to be one of the main challenges facing Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) that hinders their ability to create effective learning environments and provide opportunities for their learners to communicate in the target language. The focus group participants also argued that it is the LEFLUTs' responsibility to motivate their learners through the implementation of appropriate materials, activities and approaches. For example, the participants explained that:

And in terms of the students being reluctant to learn or willingness to learn, that is a great issue for teachers that they should take into consideration (L3).

Commenting on the previous participants' comment, L1 explained that:

this is a very important point when you say unmotivated to the students' willingness to study. I think in this case, it depends on the teachers' encouragement to teach (L1).

If you deal with low English proficient level students in one way or another, the teachers themselves might be reluctant to teach them because those students are resistant to learn (L3).

In another discussion, L3 and L4 explained that:

that is what the course design makers will be focusing on how to overcome this issue. The teacher himself is a big element in this case. one of the responsibilities of the teacher is to make students motivated as much as he can like my colleagues just said to provide new material up-to-date materials not stick to one specific material for all the time (L3).

it also depends on the curriculum that the teacher is using; it must include group work or pair work. The teacher also can nominate some students (L4).

Then L4 proposed CLT activities as one way to motivate the learners.

This is a good way for the teacher and for the students to motivate them. To let all the students participated in the class (L4).

The influence of motivation on the learners and language learning has been thoroughly discussed in Chapter Three and Section 6.1 above. In this focus group, the participants suggest that the Libyan EFL learners may have low motivation levels due to the LEFLUTs' approach and choice of material. In addition, the focus group participants suggest that this may be due to the lack of appropriate level of communicative competence (CC) which hinders their active participation and involvement in the classroom. As a result, the Libyan EFL learners seem to become externally motivated and less encouraged to learn the target language effectively through deeper approaches. According to Ehrman *et al.* (2003), when language learners are internally motivated, they become more encouraged to learn the language and interact with others. Being less interested and less motivated to learn, the Libyan EFL students usually focus on passing exams and course completion.

Students' surface learning approach

The focus group participants complained that Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers' (LEFLUTs) approach and choice of material often encourage their

learners to adopt surface approaches to learning, that is to focus on passing exams and course completion rather than developing their knowledge and improving their language. The focus group participants explain that the Libyan EFL learners adopt surface approaches to learning due to the LEFLUTs' approach to teaching and choice of material. For example, several participants complained that:

I think the curriculum designer or teacher need to know how think about how they use the material because you see that their main focus is just to focus on passing the subject without gaining any knowledge (L1).

the teacher method is to prepare them to pass the exams (L1).

the is very important sign that they just focus on passing the subject ok they are not interested because if you interact with them in daily bases you will find that do not focus on just gaining knowledge they just want to pass the subject (L2).

also some teachers sometimes they encourage students just to focus on passing the exams (L2).

As reported in Chapter Two and in the scenario data, the focus group participants suggest that the Libyan EFL learners seem to adopt surface approaches to achieve surface strategies, pass exams and succeed. The research data suggests that the LEFLUTs' CPD material should focus on the issue of a surface approach and help the LEFLUTs to encourage their learners to adopt deeper approaches to learning, that is to learn English to be able to understand it and communicate using it.

6.3 Section Summary: Scenarios and Focus Group

The scenario and focus group data show that although the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) seem to have adequate general pedagogical knowledge (GPK), the LEFLUTs' knowledge base may be either incomplete or inconsistent with their actual classroom practice. In other words, although most of the LEFLUTs showed adequate knowledge of some aspects of GPK such as teacher-centred and learner-centred methodologies, their classroom practice appears to draw mainly on traditional methodologies and techniques such rote learning, drilling, repetition and memorisation. According to Elabbar (2011), Suwaed (2011) and Abosnan (2016), although most of their LEFLUT participants seemed to possess some aspects of GPK, there was an inconsistency between the LEFLUTs' responses to the interviews and their actual teaching practice when they were observed teaching. According to Cochran-Smith & Lytle (1999), the relationship between knowledge and practice is dependent on the abilities of the

teachers to transform their knowledge base into actual classroom practice and instruction. Accordingly, the inconsistency between the LEFLUTs' knowledge base and their actual practice may be due to the LEFLUTs' inability to transform their knowledge base into practical representations. At this stage I can only suggest this as the current study have not observed the LEFLUTs in their context.

The above inconsistency in the LEFLUTs' knowledge and practice was demonstrated by the participants' responses to various scenarios and focus group discussions. For example, in response to Scenario Five (Linguistics Class), L1 suggested that the LEFLUT should adopt more learner-centred approach and create an appropriate interactive environment for the learners to develop their language and improve their skills. Scenario Five represents a linguistics lesson in which the teacher is reading a text to the class and the students are repeating after him/her and answering the post-reading questions. L1 criticised the teacher's approach and advised that:

I advise this teacher to create a communicative environment where the students participate with each other by asking them to work as a group and present the requested task in front of the class (L1).

However, in the focus group discussion, I asked the participants about the kind of skills and knowledge that the LEFLUTs need, and L1 advised the LEFLUTs to adopt learner-centred methodologies. At the same time, L1 seems to agree that the LEFLUTs' traditional practice cannot be adapted due to the contextual factors including the students' low aptitude and motivation and large classes. As L1 puts it:

because I have experience in reading...I can give an excuse for the teachers for doing this way of teaching reading (The students are just repeating what they are hearing from the teacher) because there is a large number of students that goes up to 80 or 70 in one classroom.

This example suggests that although L1 possess adequate knowledge to teach effectively, he seems to implement his material through traditional methodologies due to large classes. In addition, although L2 pretends to possess adequate knowledge about learners, in some occasions L2 seems to lack several aspects of the learners' individual differences (IDs) such as aptitude and motivation. For example, in Scenario One (The Audiolingual Classroom), L2 commented that:

I notice use of the mother tongue more than needed. However that could be made up by the use of visuals. I can also notice that this method is not learner-oriented due to absence of student participation, at least in this scenario. Reliance on translation in English classes where student are expected to be exposed to target language is not engaging.

Scenario One was about a LEFLUT who adopts traditional methodologies due to several contextual factors such as large classes and students' low aptitude/level and motivation. According to L2, this LEFLUT should adopt more learner-centred approaches and find ways to manage the class and overcome the contextual problems. However, in the focus group discussion, L2 comments suggest that he lacks appropriate knowledge about learners and struggles to manage his own classroom.

this is one just one thing that teachers need to learn about the learners themselves their abilities and how to manage and deal with them. As we know we sometimes face myself we face different difficulty in dealing with the students (L2).

In the above example, while L2 demonstrated appropriate knowledge about learners, he seemed to be unable to put this knowledge into actual practice. This suggests that there may be a gap in the LEFLUTs' knowledge and their practice due to several contextual factors such as large classes, students' low aptitude and motivation, and lack of resources. The classroom context is more than the physical space, students, type of programme and material; it also includes the values and ideologies that inform the policies, practices, and interactions that influence the teachers' practice and is influenced by the teachers' knowledge base, values and attitudes (Freeman and Johnson, 1998; Freeman, 2002). Several participants suggested that the LEFLUTs may struggle to implement their actual knowledge due to the above contextual factors. For example, in response to Scenario Ten, L9 explained that the LEFLUTs' attempts to implement more effective teaching are usually hindered by several contextual factors, including large classes. L9 commented that:

they (the LEFLUTs) are clearly aware of the constraints which hinder them from applying such effective teaching skills. They mentioned three major problems, one of which (i.e. large classes) is the main issue (L9).

there is the issue of finding a way to overcome those constrains and just finding a way to teach effectively regardless of such impediments (L11).

I completely agree with the teachers that the variables mentioned can affect their decision to adopt more effective teaching methods try to work out a systematic way of reducing class size, finding ways of managing their time effectively, and employ more staff members in order to reduce the pressure on the current staff (L14).

According to Freeman (2002), very often the language teachers' knowledge base is not always reflected in their actual practice due to the teachers' personal and practical knowledge, attitudes, social histories and the dynamic nature of teaching environments. Freeman (2002) adds that:

there is an on-going and dynamic tension between the fixed value of the content knowledge and the local, contextual adjustment of teaching practices that the teacher must learn to navigate (p. 5).

In addition to the contextual factors, the inconsistency between the teachers' knowledge and actual practice is said to be linked to the sort of knowledge they have. According to Knight (2002), teacher knowledge can be classified into practical knowledge and declarative knowledge. Declarative knowledge consists of concrete facts, abstract knowledge of principles and ideas whereas practical knowledge is mainly about learning to put these concepts into practice (Knight, 2002). This suggests that the gap between the LEFLUTs' knowledge and their practice is related to the sort of knowledge they have and the support they receive. This is to say that although they possess adequate declarative knowledge, with the exception, perhaps of the ways in which English is and can be used today (global English and intercultural communication), these LEFLUTs may lack the practical knowledge and skills to support them to transfer this declarative knowledge into effective teaching practices.

It was important to identify this gap of the LEFLUTs' knowledge and understand their practice so that appropriate CPD material can be developed for them. This section suggests that any CPD material developed for the LEFLUTs should consider the LEFLUTs' contextual factors (large classes, limited time, students' low aptitude and motivation) and provide opportunities for the LEFLUTs to implement the content of the CPD material into their classroom.

Having explored the LEFLUTs' knowledge base and identified their PD needs, in the next section I will now analyse the data from a CPD programme in action which I observed.

6.4 Fieldnotes

6.4.1 Introduction

I shadowed a CPD programme to explore how the practice in a UK university matched the data from the CPD literature and the need analysis phase (scenarios/focus group). According to Emerson *et al.* (1995), field researchers seek to:

get close to others in order to understand their way of life. To preserve and convey that closeness, they must describe situations and events of interest in detail (p. 14).

Before I shadowed the programme, I met the senior lecturer and obtained the following information about the programme and participants. The programme is titled Postgraduate Certificate in Academic Practice (PGCAP) which starts in September of every year and lasts between 24 to 36 months. It is obligatory for the newly enrolled staff at this university to attend the PGCAP in order to indicate fulfilment of the UK Professional Standards Framework for teaching and supporting learning in higher education. During this programme, the participants cover a wide range of topics: learning and teaching in higher education and developing effective supervision practices, course and curriculum design, evaluation of teaching practice, principles of assessment and feedback, research supervisions, and teaching methodologies. In addition, the PGCAP adopts constructivists' views that learning is best achieved when both the tutors and the participants are engaged in collaborative, reflective and interactive discussions through small group teaching (SGT) rather than lecturing and large group classes (See Chapters Three and Four).

The programme consisted of three sessions: small group teaching, enhancing your teaching using students' feedback and enhancing students learning. In Session One (small group teaching), the participants were introduced to the concept of small group teaching (SGT) and how it is different from the teaching of seminars, large groups and lectures. The participants also explored various SGT activities, seating arrangement and students' grouping. In Session Two (Enhancing Your Teaching Using Students Feedback), the participants studied different examples of evaluation, assessment and feedback. They also explored the importance of students' feedback and how it helps teachers to enhance their teaching. Finally, in Session Three (Enhancing Students Learning), the participants covered different students' learning styles and strategies and discussed how these styles and strategies can affect the teachers' choice of methodology and assessment.

In the first session, one of the course tutors introduced me to the participants and explained the reason of my presence. The tutor explained that this is a PhD student from the University of Glasgow who is focusing on CPD and would like to explore our PGCAP programme and discover what it can offer for his own study and CPD design. In addition, the course tutors offered me the opportunity to participate in all three sessions as a learner so that I get deeper picture and better understanding of they are doing. As I shadowed the programme, I started gathering fieldnotes data, which I explain in the next section.

6.4.2 Taking the Fieldnotes

In order to take the fieldnotes, I adopted a contact summary sheet proposed by Miles and Huberman (1994). This contact summary sheet describes who is involved, what is happening, what main issues or themes are covered, where and when things are happening and how and why things are happening (see Appendix Eleven). The use of a draft contact summary sheet and taking fieldnotes in this order and manner helped me to see what needs to be written during the sessions or added after each session. Applying this procedure, I used simple and short notes during the sessions so that I focus on the teaching and learning process and follow what happens. In addition, after each session, I added my own notes to the information in the contact summary sheet like the roles of participants and the tutors, the participants' experiences and comments that arose during the sessions, or extra information on each session. Drafting and redrafting the fieldnotes enabled me to comment on the information, explore it for missing detail, make adjustment for the next fieldnotes session and conduct initial analysis on each session separately. Having done this with each session, then I integrated and linked all three sessions together, developed a set of themes and prepared the fieldnotes data for analysis and interpretation.

6.4.3 Developing Themes from the Fieldnotes

Having gathered the fieldnotes from each session, I prepared the fieldnote data for analysis and developed a set of themes through reading the drafts and redrafts of the summary sheets. While I was gathering the fieldnotes, I noted and recorded the main themes or issues that I noticed or identified after my reflection on the data. As discussed in the previous sections, themes are general concepts or categories that emerge from the data (Bradley *et al.*, 2007). Once the fieldnote data had been obtained from each session, I identified the key issues, summarised the main ideas and developed a set of themes. The themes were summarised in a table that indicates the session, the deduced themes and the evidence from the data as shown in Table Eight below.

The Session	Main Theme	Sub-Themes	Evidence from Fieldnotes
Session (1)	Small Group Teaching	Classroom Management	small classes, large classes, teaching and learning environment, lectures, seminars, group work, pair work, seating arrangement, whole class, solo,

			buzz groups, crossovers, circle tables, row arrangements, learners' autonomy, involvement, engagement, interaction
Session (2)	Enhancing Your Teaching Using Students Feedback	Feedback and Evaluation	evaluation, assessment, feedback, evaluation methods
		Teaching Approaches	learner-centred methodologies, teacher-centred methodologies, traditional approaches, interactive activities
Session (3)	Enhancing Students Learning	Interactive Learning	engagement, interact, motivation, active/ passive learners, learners involvement, participation, motivation, learning strategies (deep, surface and strategic approaches)
		Learning Approaches	Surface approaches, deep approaches, teaching facilities, activities, techniques, transmission of information, teaching approaches

Table 9- Fieldnotes Themes: Sessions One, Two and Three

The presentation of the above descriptive analysis of the fieldnotes and the development of the set of themes prepared the fieldnotes data for the last stage of fieldnotes data analysis, which I present next.

6.4.4 Interpreting and Reporting Findings

In the first two sections above, I presented a descriptive analysis of the fieldnote data and I shall now present a more analytical interpretation of that data. In the analytical analysis stage of fieldnote data, Emerson *et al.* (1995) state that the researcher reads the fieldnotes thoroughly as a one piece of data, experiences the observation as it evolves over time, refines earlier thoughts that he/she had elaborated while preparing the data for analysis and explores the fieldnotes for new meanings and understandings through careful reflection and analysis. Blackstone (2012) adds that analytical analysis of fieldnote data represents

the fieldnote data with the researcher's thoughts, perceptions and reflections about the situation. My initial thoughts on the data while recording, drafting and redrafting the fieldnotes and identifying the main themes, suggested that my fieldnote data be analysed in terms of three areas: content of CPD, features of CPD and delivery of CPD.

6.4.4.1.1 Content of CPD

According to Garet et al. (2001), while some professional development (PD) programmes focus on some features of content knowledge (CK), general pedagogical knowledge (GPK) and pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) such as classroom management, lesson planning and presentations (see Chapter Three and Sections 6.1-6.2), other programmes focus on specific skills or needs such as using specific material or certain teaching strategies and techniques. The fieldnotes data reveals that the PGCAP programme focuses on several aspects of the GPK including classroom management, feedback and evaluation and interactive learning. It appears that the PGCAP focuses on GPK because the participants come from different disciplines and are supposed to have enough knowledge about the courses they teach but require general teaching and classroom representation approaches and techniques. GPK was also identified by the scenario and focus group participants who mentioned knowledge about teaching approaches, knowledge about learners, knowledge about classroom management, knowledge about curriculum and feedback and evaluation. The data indicated that the main obstacles facing the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) are partly due to the LEFLUTs' lack of sufficient knowledge of some aspects of the GPK listed above. The emergence of GPK from all research tools, scenarios, focus group, fieldnotes, suggests that GPK should be a key component of the LEFLUTs' knowledge base and CPD material, as we will see in coming sections.

Classroom Arrangement

The participants covered various aspects of classroom management such as class sizes, seating arrangements and students grouping. In discussion groups, as defined in Chapter Four, the participants defined small group teaching and discussed how it is different from other teaching environments such as large classes, lecturing and seminars. Based on their own experiences as both teachers and learners themselves, the participants commented that small group teaching helps them to use group work and pair work activities, give opportunities for all learners to participate and monitor and assess the progress of all

learners. On the other hand, the participants shared some negative experiences with large classes where they could not focus on all learners nor finish the classes. According to Biggs and Tang (2011), traditional teaching environment such as lectures and tutorial do not usually provide opportunities for the university students to employ high-level cognitive processes nor do they provide support for appropriate levels of learning. In addition, with lectures and tutorial neither the teacher nor the learners usually receive feedback on the teaching and learning whereas small group teaching (SGT) is interactive and ongoing and provide opportunities for both teachers and learners to receive instant information on the process of their teaching and learning (Biggs and Tang, 2011). Similarly, the scenarios and focus group data indicated that large classes appear to be a real challenge to the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) who try to adopt pair and group work activities but seem to be hindered by the large number of students. The data revealed that the LEFLUTs turn back to traditional methodologies and techniques due to several contextual factors amongst the large classes. Moreover, previous studies (Elabbar, 2011; Suwaed, 2011; Abosnan, 2016) also identified large classes as a key challenge for the LEFLUTs' innovation and implementation of interactive approaches. This again suggests that the LEFLUTs' CPD material should focus on helping the LEFLUTs to implement interactive approaches with small classes as well as large classes.

In addition, the participants explored various seating arrangements and how these arrangements could impact the teacher's choice of activities and approach and the learners' learning. In discussion groups, the participants identified and discussed the different seating forms including traditional seating or row seating arrangement, round table, horseshoe and semicircle. The participants reflected on their experiences as both teachers and learners while they were discussing these themes. They stated that all seating arrangement, except traditional or ordinary rows, help them to monitor the students' learning and progress and to move freely between the groups and students and listen and provide support to all students. With ordinary seating or lecturing, the participants could not move freely or monitor all students who usually sit in long straight rows or desks. According to the participants, seating arrangement plays a key role in their choice of activities and approaches. Seating arrangement is a new theme that was not identified in the scenarios or focus group data. However, seating arrangement is one aspect of small and large classes which was mentioned by the scenario and focus group participants as a key concern for the LEFLUTs, as well as themselves. Therefore, we may assume that seating arrangement should be one element of the LEFLUTs' knowledge base and CPD material.

This may help the LEFLUTs to create effective small class environment and interactive activities through appropriate seating arrangement.

Classroom management was one of the key themes that emerged from the CPD literature and that the scenario and focus group data. The scenario and focus group data participants suggested that the LEFLUTs' traditional approaches and their students' low level and motivation are partly due to the LEFLUTs' lack of adequate knowledge of classroom management. The data showed that while some LEFLUTs showed some classroom management knowledge and skills, some LEFLUTs seemed to struggle to maintain effective classroom management skills and adopt more interactive approaches. In addition, previous studies (Elabbar, 2011; Suwaed, 2011; Abosnan, 2016) indicated that classroom management was a key issue for their LEFLUT participants who seem to require more classroom management knowledge and skills. The research data suggests that classroom management appears to be a key component of the language teacher knowledge base that most language teachers should acquire in order to be able to adapt their material and methodology and enhance their practice and improve their learners' experiences. Moreover, the research data suggests that classroom management should be one and key element in the LEFLUTs' knowledge base and their CPD material. According to Duffee & Aikenhead (1992), classroom management helps teachers to adapt their material and teaching approaches to suit their students and situation. Talbert (1993) also states that due the complexity and diversity of teaching contexts, teaching practice is influenced by many situational factors such as classroom management which influences what to teach and how to teach it. As a result, classroom management impacts the language teachers' choice of content, methodology and procedures (Freeman, 2002; Pineda, 2002; Day, 2003).

Classroom management (small classes, large classes, seating arrangement) prepared the participants for another related topic that aims to support language teachers to improve their practice and their students' learning. The last PGCAP session focused on feedback and evaluation, which I discuss next.

Feedback and Evaluation

The programme is titled Postgraduate Certificate in Academic Practice (PGCAP) programme also introduced the participants to feedback and evaluation and why teachers should evaluate their practice and what methods and approaches of evaluation could be used. First, the participants discussed the advantages and disadvantages of teacher-centred and learner-centred methodologies (see Chapters Three and Five and Section 6.1) and the

impact of these methodologies on the teacher's choice of assessment and learners' autonomy and involvement. The teacher's choice of teacher-centred or learner-centred techniques depends so much on the teacher's skills and knowledge of classroom management. For example, the teacher's choice of seating arrangement or students' grouping, organisation and rules influence the teacher's choice of activities, role of students and material presentations. These themes, teacher-centred and learner-centred methodologies, were also identified by the scenario and focus group participants. The research data, scenario and focus group, indicates that the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) might require more knowledge and skills about learner-centred teaching approaches and methodologies in order to address their learners' low motivation and create effective interactive activities and environment for their learners. In addition, the data revealed that although some LEFLUTs showed adequate knowledge of learner-centred methodologies, these LEFLUTs usually turn back to their teacher-centred methodologies due to the lack of adequate knowledge of classroom management and other contextual factors including students' low level and motivation and large classes.

Having covered the impact of teaching approaches on the students' learning, then the participants studied the impact of students' feedback on the improvement of teachers' practice. As novice teachers' practice is often guided by impulse and intuition, they sometimes cannot evaluate the impact and effectiveness of their teaching methodologies and content of material. In this situation, student-led feedback can be very productive. Through student feedback, teachers can identify weakness or areas for potential improvement and try to improve the quality of their teaching. Students' feedback and evaluation were also key themes in the LEFLUTs' research data. For example, the scenario and focus group data indicated that the LEFLUTs' evaluation of their students appears to have encouraged surface approaches among their students, that is to pass exams rather than improve their language proficiency and acquire the language effectively. However, the scenario data suggested that the LEFLUTs' evaluation and learners' surface approach alike are influenced by the learners' low motivation. In addition, the data indicated that the learners' surface approach is due to the LEFLUTs' choice of traditional methodologies and ineffective material and activities. Unlike evaluation, students' feedback was only mentioned in the focus group data may be because the focus groups participants had more opportunities to talk about their experiences than scenarios which did not focus on this theme, students' feedback. Some focus group participants talked about their experiences of providing feedback to their teachers on their learning experiences and suggested that the

LEFLUTs should use end-of-semester surveys to improve their practice and material and enhance their students' learning. As a result, the research data suggests that students' feedback and evaluation are key elements for the LEFLUTs' knowledge base and their CPD material to help them to develop deeper approaches among their learners and receive feedback on their practice. This may help the LEFLUTs to identify their weaknesses and work towards their knowledge development and professional improvement.

According to Kember *et al.* (2002), student feedback can have a positive impact on teachers' development of knowledge, change of attitudes and improvement of practice. Biggs and Tang (2011) adds that effective teaching entails the willingness of teachers to collect student feedback on their teaching and identify what aspects of their practice need improvement. Students' feedback draws on reflective teaching discussed in Chapter Four which encourages teachers to continually reflect on their experiences in order to improve their teaching (Biggs and Tang, 2011). Therefore, effective teaching and learning activities should allow the teachers and their students to provide feedback to each other on their teaching and learning. Students' feedback can be effectively achieved within small group teaching (SGT) which promotes effective environments for teacher-to-student and student-to-student feedback. In turn, feedback requires the teachers to be aware of their current level and knowledge and what they are expected to achieve. In this respect, student feedback links with the concept of standards and outcomes that set certain criteria for language teachers to meet and enable them to monitor their teaching practice and progress. I discuss teaching standards in more depth in Chapter Seven when I present the LEFLUTs' CPD material.

Having covered teacher-centred and learner-centred methodologies and student feedback and evaluation, the third session introduced the participants to learning styles, learning strategies and affective factors defined in Chapter Three and earlier in this chapter.

Interactive Learning

Interactive learning is the main theme of the last Postgraduate Certificate in Academic Practice (PGCAP) programme session and the last theme to be discussed in this section. According to Bereiter and Scardamalia (1996) interactive learning entails that learners construct their learning and learn by engaging in interactive and critical activities. Lea *et al.* (2003) add that interactive learning supports the active role of learners and emphasises deep learning and understanding, increases autonomy of learners and fosters collaboration among them. Interactive learning suggests that the learner's approach to learning is guided

by the teachers' choice of teaching methodology and method of assessment. The PGCAP participants explored the impact of the teachers' methodology on the learners' approach to learning, deep and surface learning. In doing so, the participants reflected on their own

experiences as both teachers and learners and discussed some successful and unsuccessful learning experiences. The main argument was that interactive learning through learners' involvement and active participation encourages deep learning which I discussed in Section 6.1 above. As mentioned in the previous sections, the scenario and focus group data showed that the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) seem to require more knowledge and skills of learner-centred approaches and techniques and classroom management to teach effectively through interactive learning. In addition, the research data revealed that most Libyan EFL learners appear to adopt surface approaches to learning, that is to pass exams, due to the traditional practices of most LEFLUTs. The scenario and focus group participants argued that when the students are unmotivated, they often become less involved and follow surface approaches to learning and explained that being unmotivated and following surface approaches to learning often lead to the students' failure to achieve acceptable learning outcomes. In addition, these participants believed that it is the LEFLUTs' responsibility to motivate their learners and encourage them follow deeper approaches through more interactive activities and appropriate material. According to Biggs and Tang (2011), interactive learning encourages the teachers to maximise the chances that unmotivated and less involved students would achieve desirable learning outcomes and minimise the aspects of teaching that discourage students' involvement and lessen their motivation.

The research data (scenarios, focus group, fieldnotes) suggests that LEFLUTs should adopt more learner-centred approaches to motivate their learners and help them to construct their own learning through engaging in more interactive activities. In addition, the data suggests that the LEFLUTs should encourage their learners to play active role in the learning process, emphasise deep approaches among their learners and increase their autonomy. To sum up, the data suggests that interactive learning should be a key element for the LEFLUTs' knowledge base and their CPD.

6.4.4.1.2 Features of CPD

The Postgraduate Certificate in Academic Practice (PGCAP) programme promotes all the effective features identified in the CPD literature and those identified by my study's

scenario and focus group participants: collaboration, reflection, coaching, mentoring and sustainability.

Collaboration

The PGCAP assumes that collaboration between learners leads to effective learning and successful outcomes. As discussed in Chapter Four and Sections 6.1 and 6.2 above, collaboration encourages language teachers to construct their knowledge and develop new thinking through collaborative activities rather than learning in isolation or through received knowledge. In addition, collaboration supports language teachers to improve their teaching efficiency, develop positive attitudes towards teaching and develop a high level of confidence and promotes successful construction of knowledge. To promote collaboration among the participants, the PGCAP encourages the participants to engage in all sorts of collaborative activities during the programme or when they are teaching their students including formal and informal discussion groups, mentoring and coaching (see Chapter Four). For example, during the programme, the participants are divided into groups of four to five members each of which is coached or mentored by a tutor. The participants group meets with their coach/mentor once a week to discuss the progress of their programme, the observations they have done or the co-teaching they have undertaken. The participants also meet individually with their coach/mentor whenever there is something that requires the intervention of the tutor. In their responses and comments on the scenarios and focus group, my participants indicated that the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) lack appropriate support and teach and learn individually. Therefore, the participants suggested that the LEFLUTs should collaborate and help each other to

resolve the problems they usually face and improve their practice and professional development. In addition, the research participants believed that collaboration may help the LEFLUTs to change their attitudes about learning and teaching and improve their practice through more interactive approaches and activities.

The research data suggests that collaboration may support the LEFLUTs to develop more collaborative and interactive learning approaches among themselves and their learners alike. This indicates that collaboration should be a fundamental element for the LEFLUTs' profession and knowledge base and their CPD material. However, besides collaboration, the PGCAP programme also encouraged reflective practice among the participants as I will show below.

Reflection

Beside collaboration, the Postgraduate Certificate in Academic Practice (PGCAP) programme also considers reflection a key factor for effective learning and development. To support the participants to reflect on their experiences, the PGCAP provides opportunities for the participants to relate the course content and activities to their own actual practice and experiences. For example, when the participants cover a theme or discuss something from the programme, they relate it to their own learning, teaching and personal experiences. They do so as they work in groups during the sessions, when they meet with their coach/mentor and groups, or when they meet with their colleagues at their departments. The scenario and focus group data suggested that the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) should be offered enough opportunities to discuss and share their experiences to help them to develop their knowledge and improve their practice. In addition, my research participants seem to think that reflection is a key feature of the LEFLUTs' knowledge base and professional development. According to Roberts (1998), the professional development of language teachers through teaching experiences is only possible through a process of systematic reflection that leads to a lasting impact and change. In addition, Feldman (1999) suggests that reflection is developed and sustained through engagement of language teachers in collaborative activities in which they listen to each other and relate what they hear to their experiences and situations. In brief, reflection is considered a fundamental feature for effective PD that encourages language teachers to implement their knowledge and reflect on their practices.

Based on the research data, this study indicates that reflection may help the LEFLUTs to develop more collaborative approaches to their teaching and learning, develop their knowledge and improve their teaching. In addition, this suggests that reflection should be a key feature of the LEFLUTs CPD material. However, as discussed in Chapter Four and Sections 6.1 and 6.2, collaboration and reflection are key features for language teachers' professional development but would be ineffective if not sustained over time. Sustainability was the last feature identified in the PGCAP programme and I turn to this next.

Sustainability

Chapter Four showed that traditional CPD models often fail to offer effective changes and successful outcomes because they usually lack opportunities for collaborative and

reflective practices and sustainability of development. The Postgraduate Certificate in Academic Practice (PGCAP) programme also assumes that if the participants collaborate and reflect on their own experiences and classroom situations, they might develop their practice and sustain their development. To achieve sustainability, the PGCAP encourages the participants to critically reflect on their own classroom teaching experiences, identify problems or puzzles, suggest explanations and take actions based on their existing knowledge, support from their colleagues or further reading. In addition, the participants are required to complete a professional development plan (PDP) in which they outline the plans and procedures for their professional development (PD) in the future. When I met the senior lecturer after I gathered the fieldnotes and asked her about sustainability, she stated that beside the collaborative and reflective activities, they ask the participants to provide a PDP in which they outline their PDP after they have finished the programme. As discussed in Sections 6.1 and 6.2, although the scenario and focus group participants did not explicitly mention the term sustainability, these participants suggested that the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) should always develop their knowledge and improve their practice through and engaging in ongoing formal and informal PD activities, that is sustain their development through PD activities. According to my participants, sustainability may help the LEFLUTs implement new reforms and more interactive learning and prepare effective material. According to Abosnan (2016), sustainability appears to be the one of the main challenges facing the LEFLUTs who seek PD and keeping up-to-date with the rapidly changing field of ELT. To help the LEFLUTs sustain their PD, some of my participants suggested material adaptation and evaluation, discussion groups and student's feedback. According to Day (2002) and Mann (2005), reflective practice activities such as discussion groups, observation and writing journals may help language teachers to sustain their practice and PD. In addition, Sato and Kleinsasser (2004) also suggested reflective practice and collaborative CPD activities as effective approaches to help language teachers to sustain ongoing PD.

Sustainability of PD is extremely important not only for the PGCAP participants but also for all EFL/ESL teachers, education systems and institutions, as well as the LEFLUTs. When the LEFLUTs do not sustain their PD, they may develop fixed practices and fail to meet the standards of their students' learning. As a result, sustainability may promote the LEFLUTs' commitment and interest in teaching and prevents demotivation and fixed routines through various tools and activities that have the potential to encourage, promote, guide and structure a sustainable PD. This suggests that the LEFLUTs CPD material should provide opportunities for the LEFLUTs to sustain their PD through various

activities such as those discussed in Chapter Four including reflective practice and exploratory practice.

In addition to the content and feature of the PGCAP programme, I also identified various approaches to CPD delivery, which I present next.

6.4.4.1.3 Mode of Delivery

In the introduction to the fieldnotes data, it was suggested that the PGCAP programme draws on the constructivists' teaching and learning views discussed in Chapter Three. Accordingly, the Postgraduate Certificate in Academic Practice (PGCAP) programme assumes that the participants are responsible for the construction of their own learning through engaging in collaborative and reflective activities inside and outside the classroom. To promote effective collaborative and reflective learning, the PGCAP programme uses small group teachings and seminars and create appropriate environments that foster collaboration and reflection among the participants. In addition, the PGCAP employ coaching and mentoring activities accompanied by observation as its key approach of delivery. As I mentioned above, the participants are divided into groups led by a coach or mentor who is usually one of the programme tutors. The group's coach/mentor assists the participants with their course requirements and helps them with any other issues they face with the programme or classroom teaching. In addition, the coach/mentor observes the participants' classroom once or twice a week and provides them with feedback and recommendations for improvement and better practice. The coach/mentor also co-teaches

with the participants to support them to implement new strategies, techniques or activities which they learn from the sessions. Finally, the participants peer coach each other and provide feedback on their teaching once or twice a week. This is an informal and friendlier form of coaching/mentoring which usually happens between participants of the same or nearly the same level of knowledge and experience. The PGCAP programme assumes that coaching/mentoring activities would help the participants to transfer the acquired skills and knowledge from the programme sessions into their actual classroom practice.

In their responses to the scenarios and focus group, several participants suggested that coaching and mentoring may help the LEFLUTs to develop their knowledge, improve their practice and overcome some of the contextual factors they face such as lack of training. Moreover, these participants believed that coaching and mentoring may encourage the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) to support each

other and implement new ideas and innovations. As discussed in Chapter Four and Sections 6.1 and 6.2 above, when language teachers lack appropriate support, such as the LEFLUTs, coaching and mentoring CPD activities may support them to develop their knowledge, improve their teaching skills and implement new teaching strategies and techniques. In addition, coaching and mentoring may also create collegial collaborative environments where the LEFLUTs can share, discuss, collaborate and reflect on their experiences and receive feedback on their practice. The research data suggests that coaching and mentoring should be key element in the LEFLUTs' practice and their CPD material, as we will see in the next chapter.

6.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter analysed and discussed the needs analysis data obtained through scenarios and focus group and the exploratory data collected from fieldnotes. The needs analysis data revealed that although some Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) possess reasonably adequate general pedagogical knowledge (GPK), many LEFLUTs seem to face obstacles in preparing suitable materials and implementing that material through effective methodologies and techniques due to several contextual factors including low students' aptitude/level and motivation, large classes, limited time, lack of training and low-level qualification.

The needs analysis data also revealed that there appears to be a gap between the LEFLUTs' knowledge base and their actual practice due to inadequate procedural knowledge. In addition, the needs analysis phase (scenarios/focus group) and the exploratory phase (fieldnotes) revealed that collaboration, reflection, coaching, mentoring and sustainability should be key features of any effective CPD activities provided for language teachers, including the LEFLUTs.

This chapter suggests that the LEFLUTs' CPD material should focus on the development of general aspects of the LEFLUTs' general pedagogical knowledge including interactive learning, classroom management, knowledge of learners and curriculum design and evaluation, and students' evaluation. In addition, this chapter suggests that collaboration, reflection and sustainability should be integral features of the LEFLUTs' profession and CPD material that should involve coaching, mentoring and observation in order to help the LEFLUTs to implement the new ideas and monitor their progress. In the next chapter, I will use explain how insights from the CPD literature, the needs analysis and exploratory

phases supported the preparation of CPD activities for the LEFLUTs to support them to develop their knowledge, improve their practice and to continue developing.

Chapter 7 Designing CPD Material for the LEFLUTs

7.1 Introduction

This chapter will present and discuss a systematic approach to CPD design through which the Libyan English as Foreign Language University teachers' (LEFLUTs) CPD material was prepared. The literature suggests that the principles and procedures of CPD design are like the design of any other teaching and learning material. For example, Hutchinson and Waters (1989) suggest that designing a CPD programme is like designing any teaching and learning material in which learning needs are analysed in order to produce teaching and learning elements that enable the learners to master particular areas of knowledge. In this chapter, I apply insights from the CPD literature and the needs analysis phase of this study (scenarios, focus group) to the theoretical framework for CPD developed in the literature review and to my learning from the university teacher development programme recorded in the field notes. I do this work, however, aware that I am borrowing, usually, Western models of CPD and theories and I understand that these may not be entirely appropriate or workable in Libya. For that reasons, I do discuss the Libyan context and I also draw on culturally relevant research, including the limited research focused on Libya, as much as possible.

7.2 Framework for CPD Design

There are various frameworks for the design of CPD activities and English Language Teaching (ELT) materials that adopt the same principles and involve similar processes such as those cited in the literature (Hutchinson and Waters, 1989; Day and Pennington, 1993; Graves, 1996; Breen, 2001; Day, 2003; Richards and Farrell, 2005; Loucks-Horsley *et al.*, 2010; Wright and Beaumont, 2015). Drawing on all of these available frameworks, I elaborate a systematic approach to designing CPD activities for the Libyan English as Foreign Language University teachers (LEFLUTs) that consisted of six theoretical stages: sample, needs analysis, goals and objectives, content, sequence and context, as discussed below.

1. Sample

According to Lodico *et al.* (2006), sampling deals with the identification of the participants targeted by the CPD material. These participants might be selected through surveys,

questionnaires, interviews, case studies, observation, or nominated by their institutions. As this study focuses on the development of a CPD model for the Libyan English as Foreign Language University teachers (LEFLUTs), the selected sample involved LEFLUTs from different Libyan universities, educational backgrounds and teaching and learning experiences. Accordingly, I had to ensure that the developed CPD model could represent the needs, views, perceptions and contexts of most of the LEFLUTs to meet the professional development (PD) needs of most LEFLUTs in most Libyan universities. To prepare CPD material for this sample, the next stage was to identify the LEFLUTs' PD needs through appropriate tools, which I discuss next.

2. Needs

Needs analysis explores the learning and professional development (PD) needs of the selected sample and the nature of the situation they are involved in and it is a complex process that requires deep investigation of the participants' situations, their current practices, and ways of meeting their needs (Bubb, 2005). In Chapter Four, the CPD literature was surveyed and key features of CPD were identified. These included collaboration, reflection, coaching/mentoring and sustainability. Based on the CPD literature, Chapter Five explored the Libyan English as Foreign Language University teachers' (LEFLUTs) views about their PD needs through scenarios and focus group. The LEFLUTs talked about some needs including teaching approaches, classroom management, learner knowledge and curriculum knowledge. They also mentioned collaboration, reflection, coaching/mentoring and sustainability as key features for PD. In the exploratory phase, fieldnotes from a CPD programme at a UK university identified key features of CPD and areas of teacher knowledge including teaching methodologies, classroom management, learner knowledge, curriculum knowledge, collaboration, reflection, sustainability and coaching/mentoring.

The CPD literature and the exploratory phases (needs analysis and fieldnotes) suggest that the LEFLUTs' PD needs include all of the features listed above and so, having identified the participants and their needs, the next stage focussed on goals and objectives of the LEFLUTs' CPD material.

3. Goals and objectives

Goals and objectives refer to the process of translating the purposes and intended learning outcomes of a given programme into words with these goals and objectives identifying the aim of the course and intended learning outcomes (Graves, 2000). According to Diamond

(2008), the goals of any instructional programme, including CPD, are developed from three elements: basic survival competencies, discipline-core competencies, and discipline-specific competencies. In this study, the Libyan English as Foreign Language University teachers' (LEFLUTs) CPD activities will consist of a set of general goals and objectives and a set of aims and intended learning outcomes for each session or theme based on core competencies. First, as the LEFLUTs hold English language degrees and qualification, I assumed that they possess basic survival competencies which they have acquired and developed during their learning and teaching experiences. Second, as the LEFLUTs' professional development (PD) needs include teaching methodologies, classroom management, learner knowledge and curriculum knowledge, this suggests that the LEFLUT's CPD material should focus on core competencies as well as specific competencies. According to Drakulić (2013), the literature on language teacher characteristics reveals that language teacher specific competencies entail various aspects of Shulman's content knowledge (CK) that include knowledge of the subject matter and general theories of language acquisition such as intercultural communicative competence (ICC), language acquisition device (LAD), contrastive analysis (CA), scaffolding, Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), interaction theory and negotiation of meaning (see Chapter Four). Core competencies, suggests Drakulić (2013), refer to several aspects of the language teacher general pedagogical knowledge (GPK) identified by Shulman such as teaching approaches, classroom management, learner knowledge and curriculum knowledge (see Chapter Three).

Setting programme goals and objectives serves two fundamental purposes. Firstly, it provides guidelines and themes for the content of the CPD without which the CPD material would be incoherent. Secondly, it guides the grading and sequencing of the CPD content and material which give the material a sense of cohesion and rationale and so I turn to content in the next section.

4. Content

The content of CPD material determines and identifies the aspects and themes to be covered by the participants to, as far as possible, meet their needs. According to Long and Crookes (1992), the content of teaching and learning material usually consists of items, ideas, skills, strategies, and tasks outlined in the course goals and that meet the learners' identified needs. Graves (2000) adds that this content is sometimes specified and prioritised through setting programme goals and objectives. The Libyan English as Foreign Language University teachers' (LEFLUTs) CPD material will also focus on teaching

approaches, classroom management, learner knowledge and curriculum knowledge. In addition, the CPD material will also consider the LEFLUTs' beliefs and values, especially those discussed in Chapters Two, Three and Four such as their beliefs about their learners' learning (a tendency to use a surface approach), their teaching practice (and role as knowledge transmitters and the only experts), their qualifications (they do not need further training) and their context (coping with large classes and having the time for interactive learning).

The CPD material presented here will focus on general pedagogical knowledge (GPK) rather than content knowledge (CK) for two reasons. First, the scenario and focus group participants did not suggest the need for CK in their needs analysis phase, although as noted, with respect to global English and intercultural communication, it should not be assumed that their CK is as good or up-to-date as it could be. Secondly though, Johnson (2009) argues that CK is not the same as the knowledge that teachers would need to know in order to be able to teach effectively. Harmer (2015) also suggests that instead of spending time on theoretical linguistics, that is CK, we would better focus on developing the language teachers' deeper understanding and awareness of other aspects of EFL teaching and pedagogy, that is GPK. Besides GPK, the CPD activities will encourage the LEFLUTs to collaborate, reflect and support each other and help them to sustain their knowledge and professional development (PD). This will be discussed and clarified in more depth in the next sections where I explain how the CPD content and features were addressed and presented to the LEFLUTs through this CPD material.

Once I set the CPD programme goals and objectives and translated them into applicable and achievable plans, having prepared CPD activities that would meet the LEFLUTs' needs, then the CPD material needed to be graded and sequenced according to theoretical and practical principles. These principles are addressed in the next section.

5. Sequencing

According to Nation (2000), once the course designer has identified and selected the content of the teaching and learning material, then he/she presents the material to the participants in a comprehensible manner through suitable techniques and procedures. This includes sequencing which involves determining the order of topics and activities and deciding what comes first and needs to follow. However, while some course designers present their material by applying an unpredictable format of activities in which each unit uses different activities or procedures, others apply a fixed format in which the same

sequence is used throughout all units (Nation and Macalister, 2010). In this study, the CPD material will be sequenced based on a fixed format throughout all activities in order to make it more applicable and manageable for both the trainer and the Libyan English as Foreign Language University teachers (LEFLUTs). Nation and Macalister (2010) state that when the course designers use the same sequence for all the content and activities, they help to make lesson planning much easier, ensure that all themes and topics are covered and monitored, and make the content more learnable and accessible to the learners. However, following the same format does not mean that I provided the same tasks for all content. Instead, the material covers various elements of the general pedagogical knowledge (GPK) through similar teaching and learning processes based on task-based language teaching (TBLT) procedures and techniques (see Chapter Three) but offers a variety of activities to provide opportunities for the LEFLUTs to explore and reflect on their knowledge base, their professional development (PD) and their teaching and learning experiences. Hopefully, this sequence would make the material interesting, increase the LEFLUTs' motivation and promote their participation.

In addition to the content and sequence and formatting, effective CPD material will also be influenced by the context of the participants. Context is the last element in my framework for CPD design and I discuss this next.

6. Context

Context identifies what potential benefits or obstacles might arise when the teaching and learning material is implemented. According to Nation (2000), in this stage the course designers or developers examine the situation in which the course is going to be introduced and determine what factors should be considered. The identification of the contextual factors helps course designers to determine the feasibility and practicality of the programme goals and objectives (McDonough *et al.*, 2013). In Chapter Two, I provided a thorough description of the Libyan context where the Libyan English as Foreign Language University teachers (LEFLUTs) practice teaching, and where the developed CPD model will be implemented. Information about the Libyan context was taken from various sources including official documents, literature on the Libyan EFL situation, previous studies on the LEFLUTs, my own experience as a LEFLUT and the data from this current study. Some of the identified contextual factors included: the philosophy of education and language policy, the structure of the Libyan education system, the LEFLUTs' teaching and learning cultures, experiences and working conditions, the teaching and learning resources and facilities. In addition, Chapter Six revealed that the LEFLUTs' face the obstacles of

what they see as learners' low aptitude, low levels of English and motivation, surface learning approaches, large classes, time constraints, low levels of qualification and a lack of training.

The consideration of these contextual factors not only influenced the selection of CPD material and determined the types of CPD activities but also helped to identify what effective CPD features were to be used and integrated if the LEFLUTs' CPD material was to offer opportunities to them to explore these factors and suggest possible ways for improvement. For example, the CPD material was designed to help the LEFLUTs to create interactive activities for large classes of, sometimes, a hundred students as suggested in the Chapter Six. The LEFLUTs could divide their classes into smaller groups of fives, sevens or even tens (see Chapters Six) and. I explain these possibilities in more detail in the next section when I come to the actual CPD activities and this is just one example of how the LEFLUTs' context has been addressed in the CPD material.

In the above section, I already discussed the first two elements of the adopted framework for the CPD design. I identified the participants and discussed their needs. In the next sections below, I will present and discuss the remaining elements, going through each stage separately.

7.3 The Objective and Goals of the CPD material

According to Nunan (1988), specifying programme objectives before preparing the content and the activities helps guide the selection of structures, functions, notions and tasks, provides sharper focus to the tutors and gives the participants a clear idea of the expected learning outcomes. Following Nunan (2007), the objectives of the Libyan English as Foreign Language University teachers' (LEFLUTs) CPD material draw on a content standards-based approach that establishes outcomes for institutions, teachers and learners to meet (Nunan, 2007). Within teaching and learning programmes, content standards describe what learners need to know and will be able to do within a given discipline, they specify the knowledge and skills that are fundamental and provide a clear outline of the content and skills that need to be developed (Koretz, 1992; Kendall, 2001 ; Schmidt *et al.*, 2005; Seufert *et al.*, 2005). I developed standards for the LEFLUTs' CPD content and features based on the findings from the CPD literature, the LEFLUTs' needs analysis and fieldnotes. In addition, I surveyed and adapted ideas from several standard frameworks developed by some organisations and institutions around the globe such as The UK

Professional Standards Framework for Teaching and Supporting Learning in Higher Education (Higher Education Academy, 2011), The British Council's Continuing Professional Development (CPD) Framework (British Council, 2011), Cambridge English Teaching Framework (Cambridge Assessment English, 2017), Massachusetts Framework for English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) (Massachusetts Department of Education, 2005) and the University of Glasgow's Graduate Attributes (University of Glasgow, 2016).

Beside the developed standards, I also provide benchmarks that indicated more precisely the skills and knowledge that the LEFLUTs are required to develop from the CPD activities. According to Seufert *et al.* (2005), benchmarks or indicators “describe the skills that the learners need to develop and achieve to meet the more broadly stated standards” (p. 4). These indicators not only provide detailed information on the specific skills and knowledge for the learners to develop and meet the standards but will also help monitor the learners' progress towards meeting those standards (Donovan, 2005). The developed standards and benchmarks are presented in Tables Nine to Thirteen below that indicate the particular knowledge or skill, the CPD feature and the standards and benchmarks.

Knowledge Skill	Standard	Benchmark
Teaching Approaches	become aware of the different purposes and strategies of reading, writing, listening and speaking as well as intercultural communication and global English	demonstrate the ability to use various sources that reflect different purposes and strategies
	understand and can use the different approaches to presenting language skills and components	demonstrate the ability to apply those understandings in their own classroom
	become familiar with and use a variety of activities of language skills and components	demonstrate the ability to use diverse ways to develop the language skills of their learners
	understand the rationale behind integrating language skills	demonstrate the ability to use one lesson to teach more than one skill

	become familiar with many ways of integrating grammar and vocabulary with the language skills	demonstrate the ability to combine grammar and vocabulary with language skills in their classroom
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Table 10- Standards and Benchmarks for the LEFLUTs' CPD: Knowledge of Teaching Approaches

Knowledge/Skill	Standard	Benchmark
Classroom Management	become familiar with different seating arrangements and understand the different students' groupings	demonstrate understanding and ability to adjust the classroom layout to support learning and establish and maintain positive learning environment
	have knowledge and understanding of the pedagogical principles of adopting different student groupings and seating arrangements	demonstrate the ability to create safe and effective learning environments for their learners while establishing and maintaining classroom discipline
	understand and can apply the principles of lesson planning	demonstrate the ability to write formal lesson plans and use appropriate language and check the learners' understanding
	understand how to divide lessons into coherent stages	demonstrate the ability to manage and control the pace and timing of activities
	can develop learning aims and adjust their plans to deal with unexpected classroom events	demonstrate the ability to give instruction effectively and deliver lessons using a comprehensive range of teaching techniques

Table 11-Standards and Benchmarks for the LEFLUTs' CPD: Classroom Management

Knowledge/Skill	Standard	Benchmark
Learner Knowledge	become aware of and understand learners' individual differences (IDs) such as aptitude, low levels of English, motivation and attitude	demonstrate the ability to identify various individual differences (IDs) among their learners and monitor their learning

	become familiar with and understand the influence of IDs on the learners' progress and choice of strategies	demonstrate the ability to use a variety of techniques for improving the learners' aptitude and attitude and increasing their motivation
	understand the different learning strategies of learners such as deep and surface approaches	demonstrate the ability to engage and involve the learners and keep them active and focused on both surface and deep learning
	have a clear understanding of the diverse needs of all learners	demonstrate the ability to identify their learners' needs and design classroom activities that include a variety of learning processes and interaction patterns

Table 12-Standards and Benchmarks for the LEFLUTs' CPD: Learner Knowledge

Knowledge/Skill	Standard	Benchmark
Curriculum Knowledge	become aware of and understand the general principles of material design and development	demonstrate the ability to prepare teaching and learning material
	can plan and deliver effective teaching and learning material for diverse groups of learners	demonstrate the ability to exploit a variety of resources including technology and online sources to prepare material and activities that meet their learners' needs
	understand the importance of, and have the ability to use and design, teaching and learning material that supports, involves, motivates and challenges all learners	demonstrate the ability to design and adapt teaching and learning material which stimulates and encourages all learners to participate
	know how to plan and deliver effective teaching and learning material to diverse learners with diverse needs and experiences in different settings	demonstrate the ability to prepare and deliver effective material to learners with diverse individual differences (IDs) and needs in various classroom settings including small and large classes

Table 13- Standards and Benchmarks for the LEFLUTs' CPD: Curriculum Knowledge

CPD Feature	Standard	Benchmark
Collaboration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • know and develop understanding of collaboration and recognise its impact on learning and professional development (PD) • develop effective and friendly collegial relationships with people • help and provide effective support to colleagues and students 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • is willing to share teaching, learning and professional development (PD) experiences and disseminate knowledge and expertise • can work collaboratively with colleagues and share teaching, learning and PD experiences • work collaboratively and contribute to the PD of colleagues and students through offering support and constructive advice
Reflection	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • know and develop understanding of reflective practice and its impact on teaching and learning • understand the process of and identify the different approaches to reflective practice • reflect and engage in self-evaluation through suitable reflective approaches 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • demonstrate the ability to adopt a reflective approach to their practice and PD • apply various reflective approaches through systematic cycles of reflection • evaluate and adapt their practice and PD based on systematic reflective process
Sustainability	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • develop understanding of sustainability and recognise the importance of sustainable learning and PD • develop knowledge and skills for ongoing enquiry and PD practices • seek and show commitment to PD by identifying possible areas for improvement 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • demonstrate constructive participation and engagement with various PD activities • maintain an effective record of their PD needs and keep a PDP • use opportunities to engage in various PD activities individually and with a team
Coaching/ mentoring	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • develop understanding and identify the benefits of coaching and mentoring for their practice and PD • communicate effectively with colleagues and other individuals involved in the context • respond to advice and feedback from colleagues and senior staff 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • have effective professional relationships with colleagues and students • know how and when to provide effective advice and support • evaluate their practice and adapt it in accordance with feedback and advice from colleagues and experts

Table 14-Standards and Benchmarks for the LEFLUTs' CPD: Features of CPD

7.4 The CPD material

As noted above, the CPD material presented here draws on three main sources of data: CPD literature, needs analysis phase (scenarios and focus group) and an exploratory phase (fieldnotes). Due to the limited scope and length of thesis, I will not present the entire CPD material here, but I will provide some examples of the topics and activities that the Libyan English as Foreign Language University teachers (LEFLUTs) will cover. In addition, it is important to state that when the LEFLUTs study the CPD material, they might ask to focus on other areas which suggests that the CPD material should be flexible and open to the adaptation of some of the activities presented here. In this section, I present and discuss the content and features of the CPD material that the LEFLUTs are more likely to cover.

7.4.1 Content of CPD

The first CPD activity will cover teaching approaches and techniques to presenting language skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing) and language components (vocabulary, grammar). I discuss this theme and other themes in Section 7.7 below when I present the practical CPD activities. In the second CPD activity, the Libyan English as Foreign Language University teachers (LEFLUTs) will focus on various aspects of classroom management: small and large classes, seating arrangements, student groupings, time management and lesson planning. The third CPD activity will focus on certain learner's individual differences (IDs), namely learning approaches (deep and surface learning), learning styles (visual, auditory and kinaesthetic, although I realise these are contested constructs), motivation and aptitude. In the last CPD activity, the LEFLUTs will explore various skills and techniques of material development and adaptation. In doing so, they will study the principles of material development and design, adaptation of material in use, the use of supplementary material and sources including online sources and the use of technology in the language classroom.

The above examples suggest that the selected content consists of themes and sub-themes that appear to be complex and demanding in terms of the sources required and time needed to achieve them. The 'complete' development of CPD activities across all the selected content and themes is not feasible here but rather is an ongoing project that will always be changing in response to needs and developments in the field. For example, to support teacher knowledge and develop the LEFLUTs understanding of effective interaction and communication, I will, for example, develop a specific session on global English and

Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC). Following Byram's (1997, p7) definition of ICC, noted earlier in this thesis as an individual's ability to communicate and interact across cultural boundaries, this session will specially focus on foreign culture and helping learners, but the LEFLUTs too, to cope with intercultural misunderstanding and conflicts as well as, most importantly communication with those from different cultures. to communicate effectively with each other. This session will focus on ways in which ICC and global English might be integrated into materials and attention to different varieties of English and Englishes and I note it here as an example of this CPD as an ongoing project.

Accepting that the CPD material here is incomplete and that it will always need additions and revisions, at this stage I will provide examples of the LEFLUTs' CPD material with additional activities to be prepared when the CPD material is presented to the LEFLUTs. I also present and discuss the current research limitations and recommendations.

7.4.2 Features of CPD

While the above selected CPD content (teaching approaches, classroom management, learner knowledge, curriculum knowledge) will be explicitly presented in the CPD activities and explored by the Libyan English as Foreign Language University teachers (LEFLUTs), the suggested CPD features (collaboration, reflection, sustainability, coaching/mentoring) will be implicitly addressed by the CPD activities and covered by the LEFLUTs. The CPD activities will promote these features in every activity the LEFLUTs will undertake in the programme or in their classroom teaching. The LEFLUTs will be encouraged to work on the CPD material together, given issues to discuss or resolve together, asked to prepare or deliver teaching and learning material together, given opportunities to co-teach and observe each other and provide feedback to each other or asked to conduct their research about certain issues and to share that research with their peers. These activities, as well as others, will be explicitly presented in the CPD activities as I show in Section 7.7 below.

7.4.2.1 Collaboration

The CPD activities will encourage the Libyan English as Foreign Language University teachers (LEFLUTs) to engage with various forms of formal and informal collaboration such as between the LEFLUTs and coach or mentor and between the LEFLUTs themselves. In these collaborative activities, the LEFLUTs will be encouraged to share experiences,

exchange ideas and sources, co-teach classes and provide feedback to each other. According to Richards and Lockhart (1994), collaboration involves formal and informal activities between two colleagues or an expert and a less experienced teacher who work together on the design and implementation of teaching and learning material, planning lessons, sharing ideas and experiences such as classroom procedures or teaching techniques. As the LEFLUTs seek professional development (PD) and currently lack appropriate support to prepare material, plan lessons and teach and manage their classes effectively, collaborative activities might help them to do all these things more effectively if they work together. In turn, collaboration will hopefully encourage the LEFLUTs to explore their understandings, teacher knowledge base (TKB) and practice and provide opportunities for them to develop their knowledge and improve their practice when there are no or only minimal CPD activities provided for them.

In Chapters Two, Three and Four, it was suggested that, due to the common individual teaching and learning cultures and lack of support, the LEFLUTs often respond to their classroom practices based on their own teaching and learning experiences. In addition, it was suggested that even when the LEFLUTs collaborate, they seem to do so based on unsystematic individual approaches that appear to be ineffective. Therefore, the developed CPD activities will attempt to help the LEFLUTs develop more systematic and constructive approaches to collaboration through formal and informal discussion groups and meetings as well as coaching and mentoring activities, which I discuss in the next sections. I hope that through such collaborative activities the LEFLUTs will be gradually encouraged to work together and help each other personally and professionally. I also hope that they will eventually be able to organise regular meetings, as proposed by the participants in this study, or just talk to each other when there is an issue to discuss or a problem to resolve.

In addition to collaboration, the CPD material will also encourage the LEFLUTs to reflect on their experiences through more systematic and constructive approaches such as those presented in Chapter Four and outlined below.

7.4.2.2 Reflection

According to Griffiths (2000), reflection entails the language teachers' conscious consideration of and deliberation on their beliefs, knowledge and practices. When the Libyan English as Foreign Language University teachers (LEFLUTs) collaborate and share

their teaching and learning experiences, they will be encouraged to reflect on their experiences. The CPD activities will provide opportunities for the LEFLUTs to reflect on their practices and relate the content of the CPD material to their teaching and learning experiences through various reflective approaches such as discussion groups, observation and portfolio which I discussed in Chapter Four. For example, the CPD material will exploit CPD activities that require the LEFLUTs to work in discussion groups to do the activities and reflect on their experiences. In addition, the CPD material will also encourage the LEFLUTs to engage in discussion groups outside the classroom where they meet to discuss common issues or shared concerns and work towards possible improvements and so conduct CPD activities by working together. Discussion groups here are understood as any form of collaborative and continuous meetings between two teachers or more who work together to develop their knowledge and improve their practice (Head and Taylor, 1997).

Beside reflection groups, the CPD material will also provide activities that will involve observing the LEFLUTs' practice and providing feedback to them and it will require the LEFLUTs to observe and provide feedback to each other. Observation is a systematic reflective approach through which language teachers can evaluate and improve their practice whereby they observe themselves or other colleagues and reflect and provide feedback based on a written or videoed record (Farrell, 2018). The CPD material will involve activities where the LEFLUTs will be observed and given feedback on their practice and implementation of new ideas and provide opportunities for the LEFLUTs to observe and give feedback to each other. Although observation could be problematic for the LEFLUTs who consider it an evaluative procedure, I will explain to the LEFLUTs that observation is a reflective and developmental procedure of problem-solving and sharing experiences and practices rather than an evaluation tool. For the observation, there will be a set of clear criteria developed that emphasise positive feedback and improvement rather than negative experiences or criticism. As I show in the next section, positive feedback can be very helpful for the LEFLUTs who lack appropriate support to motivate them develop their knowledge, improve their practice and continue learning.

Finally, the CPD material will require the LEFLUTs to keep portfolios of their teaching and learning experiences. A portfolio is a structured document that provides information on the teacher's knowledge, skills, abilities, achievement, development and improvement (Brown and Wolfe-Quintero, 1997). In the CPD, the LEFLUTs will be asked to write a reflective portfolio on their teaching and learning experiences and the impacts of the CPD activities on the development of their knowledge, improvement of their practice and their

students' learning. In addition, when the CPD programme is over, the LEFLUTs will be encouraged to keep portfolios of their classroom teaching in which they continue to reflect on all good and bad experiences as well as problems and puzzles. In Chapter Four, it was suggested that the LEFLUTs often perform in isolation and seem to lack systematic approaches to reflection, and this study aims to offer the LEFLUTs a systematic approach to individual reflection. As a result, when there are not enough opportunities for collaborative reflection, the LEFLUTs can resort to individual approaches through their portfolio and reflect on their teaching and learning experiences.

As the LEFLUTs are encouraged to adapt such individual and collaborative approaches, the CPD material will support the LEFLUTs through coaching and mentoring to implement new ideas and adopt constructive approaches to their professional development.

7.4.2.3 Coaching/mentoring

In addition to observation, the CPD model will also involve coaching and mentoring activities to provide the Libyan English as Foreign Language University teachers (LEFLUTs) with opportunities to collaborate and support each other. For example, the LEFLUTs will be divided into pairs and groups according to the number of participants. First, each two LEFLUTs will teach the same classes together (peer teaching), collaborate with each other to prepare teaching and learning materials, plan their lessons and share classroom practices. These pairs will also observe each other's teaching and provide feedback to each other. These activities are intended to promote collaboration among the LEFLUTs and encourage them to reflect on their experiences. According to Richards and Lockhart (1994), coaching involves informal and formal discussion and collaboration between two colleagues or a colleague and an expert to prepare teaching material, plan lessons or teaching and classroom techniques or observe each other teaching and give and receive feedback. In addition, the CPD presenter, being an expert, will co-teach classes with the LEFLUTs, observe them teaching and give them feedback on their practices and indicate areas for improvement. This activity will provide effective support for the LEFLUTs to develop their knowledge and improve their practice based on the guidance of a more experienced teacher. According to Farrell (2007), coaching sometimes involves an expert helping a novice or less experienced teachers to develop their knowledge and skills and improve their practice.

As the LEFLUTs often struggle with their classroom teaching because they lack appropriate support and adequate qualifications, the CPD activities will also involve mentoring activities whereby the CPD presenter gives guidance and feedback to the LEFLUTs on effective, ineffective and good and poor practices. Mentoring is a form of coaching where an expert mentor guides, instructs and gives feedback to a less experienced or novice teacher (Richards and Lockhart, 1994; Richards and Farrell, 2011). To mentor the LEFLUTs' learning and improvement, the LEFLUTs will be divided into groups each of which will be supervised by a mentor. In these groups, the LEFLUTs will discuss and reflect on their portfolios, the observation and feedback on their teaching (see previous features), the material and lesson planning and classroom practices and any other professional development (PD) activities. In turn, the mentor will guide and instruct the LEFLUTs on effective practices and alternative procedures and give immediate feedback.

With mentoring, the LEFLUTs will have more opportunities to gain knowledge and skills and improve their practical procedures and classroom practices under the supervision of an expert. According to Nguyen and Baldauf Jr (2010), mentoring develops supports and trust among language teachers and fosters effective reflection on their experiences. In turn, mentoring could promote trust and collaboration among the LEFLUTs and encourage them to accept positive feedback in an effective friendly environment. For language teachers' PD, based on observation positive feedback affirms that a teacher's response to classroom situations and practice is appropriate or effective (Ellis, 2009). In addition, Bell (2001) found that positive feedback from colleagues in observation activities helped language teachers who received feedback for the first time to continually improve by critically thinking about and adapting their practice and developing effective collegiality with their peers. Hence in observation CPD activities the emphasis will be on positive feedback designed to foster the LEFLUTs' motivation and provide effective support for them to continue learning.

This CPD material aims to support the LEFLUTs' professional development through the provision of appropriate CPD material. However, unless the LEFLUTs sustain their learning, it is unlikely that any CPD material would be effective for their development and improvement of practice. In the next section I will demonstrate how the LEFLUTs are encouraged to achieve sustainability through the developed CPD material.

7.4.2.4 Sustainability

Collaborative and reflective CPD activities are key elements not only for the LEFLUTs professional development (PD) but also for the sustainability of their learning. According to Hargreaves and Fink (2003), sustainability of PD means that learning and development happen and continue to happen over time through various sources and facilities regardless of the time and course of development activity. Chapter Two and the research data revealed that although the LEFLUTs usually start teaching with adequate general pedagogical knowledge (GPK), they may burn out and their knowledge and practice may decline due to lack of sustainability. In Chapter Four, the CPD literature suggested that sustainability of PD is fostered through reflective and collaborative activities such as reflection groups and observation (Day, 2002; Sato and Kleinsasser, 2004; Mann, 2005). Therefore, this CPD material will provide opportunities for the LEFLUTs to sustain their knowledge, practice and PD through various activities and procedures. For example, during the CPD programme the LEFLUTs will be encouraged to continuously collaborate and share experiences and exchange ideas. The LEFLUTs will also be encouraged, with a focus on success and their good and improving practice, to reflect on their teaching and learning experiences and practices through discussion groups, observation and their portfolios as discussed above. These collaborative and individual CPD activities will hopefully promote sustainability of PD among the LEFLUTs.

In addition, the LEFLUTs will be asked to provide a professional development plan (PDP) (see Chapter Six) in which they outline and explain in detail their plans for future PD activities after the CPD programme is over. PDP is the most commonly adopted approach to sustainability of learning among teachers in general education and language teachers with teachers identifying areas for development such as skills, knowledge or understandings, setting out the goals, strategies and outcomes of PD in order to support a continuous development of knowledge and improvement of practice. Moreover, PDP can be either created by the LEFLUTs themselves, the head of department, or other staff members who work closely with the LEFLUTs and can identify the LEFLUTs' PD needs.

I hope that through continuous exploration, collaboration, reflection and the PDP, the LEFLUTs will be able to maintain effective practices and develop better teaching in the future. Having presented the content and features of the CPD material and discussed how I addressed them, in the next section I discuss the sequence and order through which the CPD material will be presented to the LEFLUTs.

7.5 Sequence and Order of CPD Activities

The above CPD content will be organised and sequenced in the same order that emerged in the data and as presented in the previous Chapters Three, Four, Five and Six: teaching approaches, learner knowledge, classroom management and curriculum knowledge. I selected this order because it represents a hierarchy and a pedagogic rationale starting from what teachers would need to do first when they enter the classroom and it ends up with what they would need to achieve when they complete the CPD programme. First, the Libyan English as Foreign Language University teachers (LEFLUTs) require specific skills and techniques to teach language skills and components through interactive and collaborative approaches. So, they will explore various approaches to teaching specific language skills: reading, writing, listening and speaking and components: vocabulary and grammar. Here too, the LEFLUTs will also be asked, having updated their own knowledge, to include teaching and discussion in classes about global English and intercultural communications because as I noted earlier, there is a need to develop a LEFLUTs CPD session on this neglected area of learning and teaching and awareness in Libya. However, as learners have diverse individual differences (IDs) and learn language differently, the LEFLUTs might need to adapt their approaches and techniques. At this stage, the LEFLUTs will focus on different aspects of learners' IDs and how to actively involve and motivate their students. Having become familiar with the various approaches and techniques and identified IDs among learners, then the LEFLUTs will require knowledge of various aspects of classroom management skills and procedures such as arranging the furniture in the room to make it safe and comfortable for teaching, creating a supportive environment for successful learning, effectively dividing students into groups, planning lessons and managing time. Finally, the LEFLUTs' situation might require them to adapt their material and make it suitable for their context and students. Therefore, in the final activities the LEFLUTs will cover various aspects of material development and adaptation in which they study principles of course design and development.

In addition to sequencing and ordering the CPD content, in each theme or content the activities will follow the same sequence throughout. The first activity of the language skills and components will focus on general principles and understandings of language skills and components. For example, in the reading activity, the LEFLUTs will be introduced to different types of reading texts: text messages, newspaper articles, reports (see Appendix Thirteen for activities). In doing so, the LEFLUTs will identify the rationale and pedagogic principles behind using one reading text in preference to another and they will discuss the

challenges that might face both the teachers and learners while dealing with different texts. Then, the LEFLUTs will explore some approaches to overcome these obstacles for the teachers and learners using reading skills. Having done so, then the LEFLUTs will study various aspects of reading skills including prediction, skim/gist reading, reading to infer textual meaning, scan reading, close reading, and reading to infer vocabulary meaning. This is the order and sequence by which all other activities on language skills and components, classroom management, learner knowledge and curriculum knowledge will be presented to the LEFLUTs (see Appendices Thirteen to Twenty-One).

In order to prepare appropriate content for the above CPD activities, I have looked at different sources on workshop design and ELT such as those suggested by Nunan (1989b), Ur (1999), Richards and Renandya (2002), McLeod (2003), Hill and Flynn (2006), Thornbury and Watkins (2007), Harmer (2007), Harmer (2010) and Thaine (2010). I have also sought advice and support from the Academic Development Unit (ADU) and the Language Teaching and Learning Centre at the University of Glasgow who generously supplied me with various materials and useful websites such as the Higher Education Academy, The British Council, Cambridge English Teacher, Macmillan Education and Pearson ELT. Besides, I have also watched workshop videos available on You Tube provided by the British Council and Other ESL/EFL teaching and learning bodies. My supervisors have also supported me with their experience concerning the terms used for the developed themes, types of activities, the information provided to the participants, and the number of sessions.

7.6 Delivery of CPD Activities: Presentation and Timing

When the content of the Libyan English as Foreign Language University teachers' (LEFLUTs) CPD material was selected, I started thinking about the delivery of the CPD material which Cooper (2004) considers a significant factor to promote the teachers' ability to learn and achieve effective outcomes. According to Deneme and Çelik (2017), delivery refers to how and when the CPD activity is implemented or put into practice. I wondered whether to deliver the CPD material to the LEFLUTs as a course over a couple of weeks/months, as a degree programme over a couple of months/years, or as a series of workshops over a couple of weeks. When I explored the LEFLUTs context, surveyed the CPD literature and conducted the needs analysis (scenarios/focus group) and exploratory phases (fieldnotes), I realised that at this stage presenting the CPD material as a degree or taught course would be unrealistic and impractical. First, based on the current situation in

Libya, these two options would require time and resources (fund/qualified staff/time slots/administrative and management resources) which are not available under current circumstances. Second, the LEFLUTs' bibliography suggests that the LEFLUTs do not need qualifications but require certain pedagogical knowledge and skills to cope with their situation, enhance their teaching and improve their learners' experience.

Based on the above factors and the data from the scenarios and focus group in which all participants suggested workshops activities for the LEFLUTs, I decided to present the CPD material to the LEFLUTs in the form of a series of workshops. According to Richards and Farrell (2005), a workshop is:

... an intensive, short-term learning activity that is designed to provide an opportunity to acquire specific knowledge and skills...participants are expected to learn something that they can later apply in the classroom and to get hands-on experience with the topic, such as developing procedures for classroom observation or conducting action research (p. 23).

Workshops are one of the most commonly used forms of CPD delivery because they provide opportunities for the participants to explore their beliefs and practices and reflect on their experiences (Richards and Farrell, 2005). Burns (2010) adds that workshops encourage the CPD presenter and participants to collaborate interactively and share their teaching and learning experiences with others in a friendly and collaborative environment. As a result, workshops provide effective environments for professional development (PD), foster discussions among groups and promote collaboration and reflection among the participants (Burns, 2010). In addition, workshops can help the participants to relate the workshop activity to their own experiences as the presenter and the participants reflect on their own experiences of the content and themes and receive instant feedback on their ideas (Burns, 2010).

Having decided to present the CPD activities to the LEFLUTs in the form of workshops, then I needed to decide the delivery timing for the CPD workshops, pre-service or INSET. The CPD literature suggests that effective teaching is a continuous process of development and that initial or pre-service activities sometimes are not adequate for preparing teachers with the required knowledge and skills for effective classroom practices. My data confirmed this but, nowadays language teachers are encouraged to participate in INSET CPD activities to implement new ideas and share their experiences with others (Burns, 2010). In addition, the LEFLUTs' profile and the needs analysis phase (scenarios and focus groups) suggested that INSET workshops would be more effective for the LEFLUTs

than would pre-service sessions. According to Waters (2006), INSET CPD activities encourage the participants to try-out new ideas and implement the workshop content in their context and the sessions provide opportunities for them to do so in effective ways. In addition, Hayes and Chang (2012) found that INSET workshop-based CPD activities where the participants attended a workshop each day and spend the rest of the week teaching were more effective than pre-service CPD activities because INSET CPD activities provide opportunities for the participants to try out new ideas and for the presenters to observe the participants and provide feedback on their practice. This suggests that INSET CPD activities are extremely important for language teachers, such as the LEFLUTs, who are required to improve their knowledge and skills and keep up-to-date with the rapid changes and innovations in ELT (Deneme and Çelik, 2017).

INSET workshops have been used in the CPD literature to introduce and support diverse EFL/ESL teachers to use and implement various pedagogical innovations such as communicative language teaching (CLT), task-based language teaching (TBLT) and technology using CPD models such as reflective practice, action research and exploratory practice. For example, Richards and Farrell (2005) used a one-day workshop series to introduce Singapore language teachers to reflective practice. Burns (2010) also used a six-month CPD programme to introduce eight Australian teachers of adult ESL learners to action research and to explore the teaching and learning of English in mixed-level classes. In another context, Fritz (2014) provided INSET workshops for Austrian multilingual teachers who wanted to become proficient enough to teach languages to multilingual Austrian learners. The workshops focused on several aspects of general pedagogical knowledge (GPK) including methodologies for teaching language skills and components, second language acquisition (SLA) research, learner knowledge, reflection, observation and peer feedback. In addition, Hanks (2015) and Hanks (2017) also used three to six months workshops to introduce exploratory practice to ESL teachers who face a challenge of unmotivated and uninterested students. All of these studies encouraged me to develop this CPD programme with that development requiring evaluation eventually and as outlined below.

7.7 CPD Evaluation

This study aims to provide CPD material for the Libyan English as Foreign Language University teachers (LEFLUTs) based on insights from the CPD literature and the exploratory phase (needs analysis and fieldnotes). However, due to the limitations and

scope of the study which I cover in more depth in the next chapter, this study recommends the implementation of this CPD material in future studies and research. At this stage, the CPD material cannot be evaluated since it has not been presented to the LEFLUTs and put into practice. Having said this, in this section I will survey the relevant literature on CPD evaluation and provide a systematic evaluation process and criteria through which the LEFLUTs' CPD material could be evaluated in the future as it is important, even during the development stages, to consider evaluation. Included in this evaluation will be specific attention to the possibility that, having borrowed from largely Western models of CPD, modifications may be necessary if the design and delivery of the CPD seems to be culturally inappropriate. I shall be mindful of this throughout and as an important element of evaluation.

Guskey (2002) proposed a five-level CPD evaluation framework focused on the impacts of CPD activities on the participants' improvement of knowledge and skills and on the learners' achievements: participants' reaction, participants' learning, organization support and change, participants' use of new knowledge and skills and student learning outcomes and I outline this below.

1. Participants' reactions

CPD evaluation based on the participants' reactions is the most common and the simplest form of CPD evaluation and the easiest information to obtain and analyse (Guskey, 2002, p. 3). To gather information from the participants on their reactions, evaluators often use questionnaires at the end of the CPD activity or course and ask these questions: 'Did you enjoy the CPD? Was your time well spent? Did the material make sense? Will it be useful? Was the leader knowledgeable and helpful? Was the room comfortable - the right temperature? Were the chairs comfortable? (Guskey, 2002, p. 5). Questionnaires could be very useful tools to explore the Libyan English as Foreign Language University teachers' (LEFLUTs) views and experience about the CPD material as they might provide insightful data about the appropriacy of the material, relevance of content, productivity of activities and effectiveness of delivery. Questionnaires sometimes ask closed Yes/No questions like did you like the activity? Was it useful to you? Did it cover all areas you need? Or they could ask open-ended questions or extra information questions like why/why not, in questions such as 'In what way was it useful? In what way was it useful? What skills and knowledge did the activity provide?'

However, questionnaires might only provide information about views and perceptions that help to improve the design and delivery of the CPD activity. When it comes to practical impacts of CPD activities, other forms of evaluation might be needed to evaluate the participants' learning.

2. Participants' learning

This level explores what knowledge, skills, attitudes and experiences the participants have gained from the CPD activity and assesses the participants' learning through paper-and-pencil instruments, simulations, demonstrations, participant reflections (oral and/or written) and participant portfolios (Guskey, 2002). For example, with paper-and-pencil instruments, the participants could be asked to describe the learning standards of the CPD activities and demonstrate how these could be implemented in their classroom settings. With stimulations, the participants are required to identify and explain various classroom puzzles and propose practical solutions. Oral and written reflective accounts, such as writing journals and portfolios, could also provide insightful data about the participants' knowledge, skills, learning, activities, efforts, progress, attitudes and views (Guskey, 2002, p. 4). Participants' learning level evaluations are usually conducted at the end of the CPD activity, and are based on the programme goals and objectives which are set prior to the programme implementations (Guskey, 2002), but these could also be used during the programme and I shall do this, both during and after, with this CPD programme.

The evaluation of the CPD impacts on the Libyan English as Foreign Language University teachers' (LEFLUTs) learning could be measured through the LEFLUTs' demonstration of knowledge, understanding and implementation of the content of the CPD material through the presenter's own notes and observation of the LEFLUTs' interaction with the activity and implementation of new ideas in their classroom settings. This would mean that the expert who is supposed to deliver the LEFLUTs' CPD material should observe the LEFLUTs' during the CPD activities and keep notes on their learning and observe them implementing the knowledge and skills they have learned from the material into their classroom and write evaluative reports on their progress. The CPD presenter should also observe the LEFLUTs after the CPD activities are over and evaluate the impact of the CPD on the LEFLUTs' attitudes, knowledge and skills reflected in their actual classroom practice. In addition, In Chapters Four and Six, I suggested that despite their drawbacks, being time consuming and sometimes lack appropriate and effective information, journals and portfolios could be used as indicators to assess the LEFLUTs' learning and progress.

These reflective writings could indicate what knowledge and skills the LEFLUTs acquired, what views and attitudes they changed and what ideas they adopted and implemented.

3. Organizational support and change

This third evaluative level focuses on the impact of the CPD activity and its capacity to provide support or make changes based on organisational or institutional variables such as education policy, teaching and learning cultures, and resources and facilities available. According to Sparks (1996), these organisational factors can affect the effectiveness of the professional development (PD) activity and hinder and prevent its success even when it has met its goals and objectives and the participants have achieved and demonstrated the CPD standards (knowledge and skills). For example, Guskey (1996) writes that in one CPD activity, a group of participants focused on cooperative learning and gained the theoretical knowledge of learning collaboratively as well as practical aspects to implement cooperative learning with their learners. However, because the students in the participants' schools were generally graded "on the curve," according to their relative standing among classmates, with great importance attached to individual success and selecting a class valedictorian, a top-scorer, these participants were unable to successfully involve their learners in collaborative learning activities (Guskey, 2002, p. 5).

The measurement and focus of this level three evaluation appears to be more complex and demanding than the previous two levels. It requires large scale of information and analysis procedures and tools to prepare, analyse and report a large amount of data. In the Libyan English as Foreign Language University teachers' (LEFLUTs) case, this level of evaluation could be very daunting and time consuming. However, some of the organisational policies and variables have already been covered in the previous chapter throughout this thesis. For example, the previous studies reported that large classes, students low aptitude/levels of English and motivation, the teaching and learning cultures (mixed genders/rote learning/surface approaches) and lack of facilities appear to hinder the effective implementation of some aspects of communicative language teaching (CLT) such as group and pair work activities (Latiwish, 2003; Abukhattala, 2016; Aloreobi and Carey, 2017). In addition, throughout this thesis, I have always stressed that my aim is to provide the LEFLUTs with appropriate support to help them to develop their knowledge and improve their practice through more constructive and collaborative approaches regardless of their context. This is because the literature, as well as my own experience as a LEFLUTs, suggests that the Libyan education system requires a radical change in order to allow us to adopt and implement innovations and effective reforms, including collaborative

learning. Although we already know that the organisational factors in Libya could hinder the LEFLUTs' innovations and prevent the implementation of various aspects of their CPD activities, I suggest that organization support and change be conducted before the CPD activity and after the LEFLUTs have completed and programme through questionnaires and interviews with the LEFLUTs and university officials such as heads of departments and colleges and university principles. But I understand that the challenges remain and will not disappear overnight.

The information that we obtain from this level three on the factors and variables that could hinder the implementation of knowledge and skills of CPD activity leads us to another fundamental question: did the LEFLUTs implement the new ideas in their classrooms? This question is addressed by the fourth evaluation level which I discuss next.

4. Participants' use of new knowledge and skills

This evaluation level often addresses the questions of whether the participants effectively applied the new knowledge and skills or not. Guskey (2002) explains that Level Four evaluation focuses on the central question: Did what participants learn make a difference in their professional practice? The answer to this question is usually gained through questionnaires or structured interviews with the participants and their supervisors, the participants' reflective journals and portfolios or most accurately through direct observations and video or audio tapes of the participants (Guskey, 2002). Unlike the previous three levels, Level Four evaluation is usually conducted during the CPD activity rather than before or after the programme is completed. In addition, the evaluation needs to be conducted after adequate time of the CPD start and at several time intervals to allow the participants to use and implement the learned knowledge and skills into their classrooms (Guskey, 2002). I shall implement this level of evaluation but do so aware of the difficulties.

Previous studies (Elabbar, 2011; Suwaed, 2011; Abosnan, 2016) and this study suggest that the Libyan English as Foreign Language University teachers (LEFLUTs) usually possess more knowledge than is reflected in their actual practice due to the various contextual factors or there may be gaps in their knowledge (see Chapter Six). As a result, we should expect that the LEFLUTs might not implement the content of their CPD material into their classroom and adapt their practice. Therefore, it will be extremely important to measure the LEFLUTs' ability to transform the content of their CPD material into actual classroom practices. I will recommend that the LEFLUTs should be observed

during the programme as well as after the programme has finished to ensure their ability to implement the new knowledge and skills and continue developing (sustainability). In the previous sections, I suggested observation and coaching as two possible approaches to deliver the LEFLUTs' CPD material. The data from this observation could also be used to measure the LEFLUTs' ability to use the new knowledge and skills. Here, the CPD presenter could keep notes of the LEFLUTs' improvement and progress during the programme and conduct a formal evaluation procedure at the end to measure the LEFLUTs' improvement and implementation of knowledge and skills and to do so aware of possible institutional constraints noted in the previous level.

5. Student learning outcomes

The last evaluation level in Guskey's framework is measuring the impact of the CPD activities on the students' learning and achievements. According to Guskey (2002), the evaluation of students' learning outcomes will depend on the programme's general goals, and it is usually measured through cognitive indicators such as assessment results, portfolio evaluations, marks or grades and scores from standardized examinations, affective factors such as aptitudes, attitudes, motivation or skills and behaviours such as independent learning and learning strategies (Guskey, 2002, p. 6). For Guskey, this information is mainly obtained from student records, school records, questionnaires, structured interviews with students, parents, teachers, and/or administrators and participant portfolios (Guskey, 2002).

At this stage, the measurement of the impact of the CPD activity on the Libyan English as Foreign Language University teachers' (LEFLUTs) students' achievement is complicated, but it is still relevant. This study has not explored the learning outcomes of Libyan EFL learners but focused, instead, on the LEFLUTs' knowledge and professional development (PD). CPD activities, including those I have designed, usually aim to improve the teachers' practice in order to improve the students' achievements (Clarke and Hollingsworth, 2002). The scope and timing of this study could not allow me to measure the impact of the CPD activity on the Libyan EFL students' achievements, but this will be an important stage of my evaluation when the CPD is implemented. I will try to ensure that the impact of the CPD material provided here for the LEFLUTs should be evaluated through all the above procedures and evaluation levels and, to apply this final evaluation level, it will be necessary to evaluate the Libyan EFL learners' outcomes and explore their IDs, attitudes and strategies before the start of the programme. Then we can evaluate the impact of the CPD activity on the students' outcomes after the programme is over.

7.8 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented and discussed a six-step framework of CPD design through which the Libyan English as Foreign Language University teachers' (LEFLUTs) CPD material has been developed. This framework consisted of: sample, needs analysis, goals and objectives, content, sequence and context and explained how these have been addressed in this study. In doing so, this chapter defined the sample (LEFLUTs), who have already been introduced in earlier chapters, their profession and their qualification. Then it identified the participants' professional development (PDs) needs based on the LEFLUTs' needs analysis through scenarios and the focus group. Having defined the participants and identified their PDs, this chapter developed a set of general goals and objectives for the CPD material and a set of aims and intended learning outcomes for each workshop. Then, the chapter presented and outlined the content of the CPD material in more detail with examples of setting specific knowledge and skills to be covered in each workshop and I explained the rationale for the selected sequence and order of material. In the final two sections, this chapter focused on the delivery and timing of the CPD material and presented an evaluation procedure to measure the impact of the CPD material on the LEFLUTs' development in the future. I turn, next and finally, to the concluding chapter of this thesis.

Chapter 8 Conclusion

This chapter draws together the threads of this research study. Initially, I will provide responses to the main research questions and refer to the key literature as I do so. Then I will summarise the theoretical and practical principles of the Libyan English as Foreign Language University teachers' (LEFLUTs) CPD material and workshops and discuss the strengths and limitations of this research study and its potential for the LEFLUTs' professional development and practice. The chapter will also consider recommendations and possibilities related to future research, the Libyan universities and the LEFLUTs. Finally, the chapter closes with a personal reflection on my experience of the research process.

8.1 Research Questions

1. Research Question One: What kind of knowledge do the LEFLUTs think they need?

Borg (2006) defines language teacher knowledge as a complex form of practical, personal and contextual understandings, perceptions, beliefs and attitudes through which language teachers perform teaching (see Chapter Three) but that definition could apply to any CPD focussed on learning and teaching. Based on the Libyan English as Foreign Language University teachers' (LEFLUTs) needs analysis (scenarios/focus group), the research data suggests that the LEFLUTs require various aspects of general pedagogical knowledge (GPK), including teaching approaches, classroom management, learner knowledge and curriculum knowledge. These knowledge areas and skills have also been identified in the CPD literature as key components of effective CPD activities for language teachers. The Postgraduate Certificate in Academic Practice (PGCAP) programme I observed and discussed here focused on the participants' development of these knowledge and skills but not with respect to language learning and teaching. Focused on English language learning and teaching in Libyan universities and to better understand the LEFLUTs' views and knowledge to develop contextualised needs-based CPD for them, I involved the LEFLUTs in scenario and focus group research. Here I employed Shulman's teacher knowledge base (TKB) components to explore the LEFLUTs' views about their work in Libya focusing on their knowledge base, their professional development (PD) needs and what they thought CPD could and should provide.

Grimmett and MacKinnon (1992) define the teacher knowledge base (TKB) as a framework that enables language teachers to identify their knowledge and develop in the future (see Chapter Three). It encompasses networks of knowledge including content knowledge (CK), general pedagogical knowledge (GPK), pedagogical content knowledge (PCK), curricular knowledge, learner knowledge and context knowledge. Whereas content knowledge (CK) refers to the language teacher's linguistic or subject matter knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge (GPK) refers to teaching skills and techniques, classroom procedures and material design and adaption, and it is considered the vehicle through which content knowledge (CK) is transformed into meaningful representations (Grossman, 1990; Freeman, 2002). In contrast, pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) provides language teachers with diverse knowledge and skills of material representations, evaluation and development, students' individual differences (IDs) and assessment (Day, 2003). PCK entails the language teacher's knowledge of curriculum and knowledge of learners. Pineda (2002) describes knowledge of curriculum as the language teacher's knowledge and understanding of the ELT material and knowledge of learners as the language teacher's knowledge of students' IDs, cognitive strategies and learning process. Finally, context knowledge is the language teacher's knowledge of educational and language policies, students (IDs), institutions, programmes and material (Richards, 1998). The teacher knowledge base (TKB) and its elements was presented and discussed in detail in Chapter Three and I now summarise what this study suggested about the TKB.

The research data (scenario and focus group) suggested that the LEFLUTs appear to possess adequate content knowledge (CK) but not as much general pedagogical knowledge (GPK) (classroom management, learner knowledge, curriculum knowledge) or context knowledge. That said, I have already noted that it would be useful and necessary to investigate the LEFLUTs' CK more thoroughly. This was not the focus of my study but, because Libya is, once again, relatively isolated and because, as I have noted, the LEFLUTs have very little or no access to CPD and support, it is possible that they are not aware of current developments, research and ideas in English Language Teaching and I return to this in the future research section below.

The data showed that learners' low levels of English and low motivation, large classes, time constraints, low level inadequate teacher qualifications and a lack of training and support are viewed by the LEFLUTs as the main obstacles to their teaching and to their professional development (PD). Besides, my fieldnote data conformed that general pedagogical knowledge (GPK) (interactive learning, classroom management, knowledge

of learners, knowledge of curriculum) is a fundamental component of a teacher's knowledge base and professional development (PD). Therefore I suggested that collaboration, reflection, coaching, mentoring and sustainability should be key features of effective CPD.

Based on the research findings, including the survey of literature, this study provided a CPD workshop series that covers interactive learning, classroom management, learners' IDs and curriculum development and adaptation, promotes collaboration, reflection and sustainability and involves coaching and mentoring activities and I discuss the LEFLUTs' CPD material in more detail in the following sections.

2. Research Question Two: What opportunities do the LEFLUTs have for professional learning?

The exploratory phase data (scenario and focus group) suggested that although the Libyan English as Foreign Language University teachers (LEFLUTs) often perform in isolation and develop their teaching based on unstructured approaches, there appear to be opportunities for the LEFLUTs to engage in more systematic individual and collaborative professional development (PD) activities. For example, the research data revealed that LEFLUTs usually collaborate and discuss their practices and classroom issues with each other and they do share material and resources. In addition, the research data showed that as the LEFLUTs discuss their experiences and share their ideas, they often reflect on their knowledge and practice. Building from this, the LEFLUTs could be offered opportunities to engage in more organised and better supported collaborative and individual reflective practices such as discussion groups, portfolios and observation (see Chapter Four).

In addition, the data showed that the LEFLUTs adapt their practice and material not only through support from colleagues but from sources from the library and internet. This indicates that these sources have potential benefits for the LEFLUTs but perhaps a CPD programme should include specific guidance on and resources from the internet. This existing practice of sharing also suggests that the LEFLUTs would be pleased to have more organised formal additional appropriate support such as coaching and mentoring to work on the preparation and implementation of material, lesson planning, teaching techniques and classroom puzzles. Coaching, as noted, is a form of CPD activity in which a peer or experienced teacher cooperates with another teacher to reflect upon and improve their knowledge and practices, share ideas and expertise or solve shared problems (Robbins, 1995). In contrast, mentoring usually involves an experienced teacher instructing, guiding

and providing feedback to a novice or less experienced teacher (Holliday, 2001). Internet sources might offer interesting material for the LEFLUTs and their learners and provide opportunities for the LEFLUTs to participate in online professional development (PD) programmes and workshops. In addition, internet sources might also offer opportunities for the LEFLUTs to discuss their experiences with other professionals and language teachers from all over the world. Based on the research findings, I suggest that formal and informal internet-based and technology supported professional development (PD) might help the LEFLUTs to develop their knowledge, improve their practice and enhance their experiences and their students' achievement. Technology enabled support could also help the LEFLUTs to be in communication with other LEFLUTs across Libya and from other countries. This could help them be able to learn from others in their context (Libyan universities) but in other contexts across the world and that could mean their community of practice could be extended and I return to this in the next section.

3. Research Question Three: What are desirable characteristics of a CPD model?

The LEFLUTs' needs analysis (scenarios and focus group) revealed that collaboration, reflection and sustainability are key and desirable features for the Libyan English as Foreign Language University teachers (LEFLUTs) and their CPD activities. In addition, the CPD literature and the fieldnotes also indicated that these characteristics are fundamental elements of effective CPD and successful outcomes. Reflection, defined by Griffiths (2000) as the language teacher's active and conscious consideration of knowledge, beliefs and practice, is a key feature of effective CPD because it supports language teachers to develop their teacher knowledge base, improve their practice, change and adapt their teaching approaches and attitudes, and adopt and try new ideas through various individual and collaborative activities (Bigelow and Walker, 2004; Farrell, 2007; Richards, 2008; Farrell, 2018). In addition, collaboration has been described here as all forms of formal and informal activities in which language teachers work together on the development of their knowledge, improvement of their practice, material preparation, lesson planning, teaching approaches or classroom procedures (Wenger *et al.*, 2002). I noted above that the LEFLUTs do engage in informal collaboration and this suggests that formalised collaborative CPD activities might further help them to improve their practice, change their attitudes and increase their confidence. Collaboration might also encourage the LEFLUTs to share their experiences, adopt each other's approaches and techniques if appropriate and develop better understandings about their practice, classroom management skills and material representations. Also, and in the context of Libya with ongoing political

unrest and instability, technology-enabled collaborations and communications should be considered as further support.

However, collaborative and reflective CPD activities will only be effective if they can be sustained over time. As noted, sustainability refers to learning and knowledge and skills that are ongoing and last over time (Hargreaves and Fink, 2003) with, according to Webster-Wright (2009) and Opfer *et al.* (2011), sustainability achieved through CPD activities that provide opportunities for the participants to collaborate with each other and reflect on their practices. To help language teachers to sustain their development, Allwright (2003, 2005) suggested exploratory practice (EP) which offers opportunities for language teachers to continue developing and help them not to burn out. In addition, Long *et al.* (2012), support the introduction of the coaching and mentoring suggested here to support language teachers to sustain their professional development (PD) and continue learning. On several occasions, the participants suggested sustainability as a desirable feature for the LEFLUTs and CPD and explained that it might help the LEFLUTs to avoid burn out. As noted in the previous chapter, sustainability will be promoted among the LEFLUTs through various collaborative and reflective CPD activities discussion groups, reflective writing and coaching and mentoring activities over time. In addition, as the LEFLUTs usually turn to internet to prepare teaching and learning material and probably develop their knowledge and improve their practice, and as I have already said, the internet and technology might help the LEFLUTs continue learning and sustaining their professional development (PD) and that is based on what they already know and do. For example, the LEFLUTs may join online PD activities and follow official websites such as the British Council which offers up-to-date CPD activities and advice on teaching and learning materials and activities for language teachers. The LEFLUTs may also attend professional development (PD) activities through video conference technology or use other social media tools such as Skype and Zoom. I turn now to my working conclusions and the decisions I made about the LEFLUTs' CPD material.

8.2 The LEFLUTs' CPD Material

The CPD material in this thesis, based on my research with the Libyan English as Foreign Language University teachers (LEFLUTs) and the literature, was all intended to meet the LEFLUTs' professional development (PD) needs and support their learning. In terms of the CPD content, the LEFLUTs suggested the need for a focus on teaching approaches,

classroom management, learner knowledge and curriculum knowledge. In terms of CPD features, they did talk about collaboration, reflection, sustainability and coaching/mentoring. Based on what the LEFLUTs said and what is found in the CPD literature, it made sense to develop a series of CPD workshops that could be delivered through collaborative, reflective, coaching and mentoring activities and to do so in ways that ensured sustainability of learning.

Teaching approaches are covered in the first workshop of the CPD material and focus on skills and techniques to present language skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing) and language components (vocabulary, grammar). The second workshop focuses on classroom management skills and procedures such as small and large classes, seating arrangement, students' grouping, time management and lesson planning. Learner knowledge (students' IDs, learning approaches, learning styles, motivation and aptitude) is covered in the third workshop. Finally, knowledge of curriculum (material development, design and adaptation) is addressed in the fourth workshop. In terms of the effective CPD features and to ensure I built these into the CPD, collaboration is embedded in all aspects of the CPD material through various formal and informal collaborative activities amongst the LEFLUTs. The participants will be encouraged to work in pairs and groups, share their experiences, exchange ideas and sources, co-teach classes and provide feedback to each other, and I will provide guidance on this to ensure, for example, that feedback is positive and encouraging. In addition, I will also develop observation schedules that include explicit notes and feedback that focuses on positive experiences as well as what might be improved. In other words, I will focus on positive experiences in order to build from these, to motivate the LEFLUTs and to help them to improve more negative and less effective practices.

In terms of reflection, the CPD material provides opportunities for the LEFLUTs to reflect and share their teaching and learning experiences and relate the CPD material to their own experiences and contexts through discussion groups, observation and portfolios. As noted above, the focus here will be on positive experiences and how to improve negative ones. Finally, sustainability will be promoted through ongoing collaboration and reflection among the LEFLUTs and the completion of a PDP form in which the LEFLUTs outline their PD plans in the future directed towards ongoing improvement not negative experiences.

The CPD material demonstrates all of the CPD content and desirable features based on the CPD literature, the LEFLUTs' needs analysis and the fieldnotes and aims to help the

LEFLUTs, who lack formal organised sustainable and ongoing support at the moment, to develop their knowledge, improve their practice, continue learning and hopefully enhance their students' outcomes. However, data from this research study, my own professional awareness of the context of Libyan universities and the developed CPD material face many obstacles and have their own limitations, and I discuss these in the next section.

8.3 Limitations and Challenges

The first limitation of this study relates to its research design and tools. As discussed in Chapter Five, this research adopted a qualitative approach to gathering data about the Libyan English as Foreign Language University teachers' (LEFLUTs) knowledge base and professional development (PD). This was used to explore the understandings, views, perceptions, experiences and beliefs of people involved and help them to improve their situations as suggested by Bradley (1997). Drawing on a qualitative approach, I employed scenarios and focus groups to explore the LEFLUTs' views and perceptions about their professional development (PD) needs. According to O'Donoghue (2006), qualitative research approaches explore individuals' views, perceptions, attitudes and experiences through diverse methods including interviews, focus groups and observation. The current instability in Libya limited my choice of research tools and access to the LEFLUTs in their workplace and restricted the sources of information and research tools I could use. This research could have used interviews to explore the LEFLUTs' knowledge base and their views and perceptions about their professional development (PD) needs. Ideally, I would have also observed the LEFLUTs teaching and obtained more insightful information about their teaching practices in Libya. Most importantly, having gathered initial data on the LEFLUTs' knowledge base, beliefs and attitudes and professional development (PD)s, I could have prepared and introduced the CPD material to the LEFLUTs in Libya. Finally, I could have observed the LEFLUTs again and assessed the impact of the CPD material on the LEFLUTs' beliefs, attitudes and teaching practice and also considered this alongside an analysis of student learning outcomes. Due to the political instability in Libya at the time of my study, and still today, these actions were, unfortunately, not possible.

In addition, the contextual limitations meant that it was impossible for me to survey more LEFLUTs or to involve policy makers in the study. This study involved only a limited number (14) of LEFLUTs and excluded other officials who have a strong impact on the LEFLUTs' qualification and profession, including those in the Ministry of Higher

Education, departments of teacher training and accreditation, and senior managers in the universities. For example, I could have involved a larger number of LEFLUTs from diverse Libyan universities with different experiences, from inexperienced to very experienced teachers and with attention to different ages and genders. I have said that this is an interpretative qualitative study and that I was trying to better understand the views and needs of the LEFLUTs in depth and without suggesting that this is a generalizable study. That said, the study does take into account the context in Libyan universities and it could be that my findings do apply more generally but further research would need to confirm this or not.

In addition to the research population, the scarcity of information and lack of access to official sources led to a reliance on the use of the theoretical literature, previous research studies and my own experience as a LEFLUT as a primary source of initial background information about the LEFLUTs and their situation. If I had been able to access official up-to-date documents and involved decision makers from the Libyan Ministry of Education and universities, this could have provided more information about the Libyan educational and training policy and more detail on the LEFLUTs' qualifications, profession and training. It could also have helped me to assess the sustainability of the CPD material. In order to attend to these limitations, when I return to Libya I will look for more up-to-date official documents and talk to officials from the Libyan Ministry of Education and universities and teacher training departments about their current practice and future plans to support the LEFLUTs and provide CPD activities for them.

But perhaps the most significant limitation of this study is that I was unable to trial, to implement and to evaluate, the LEFLUTs' CPD material developed here and so, in the next section, I focus on recommendations for future research and practice in ways that try to address these limitations.

8.4 Future Research, Including Evaluation

Using scenarios and focus group, I explored the Libyan English as Foreign Language University teachers' (LEFLUTs) knowledge base and professional development (PD) needs. Based on the research findings, I designed the CPD material to address the needs and desirable features of sustainable CPD, but this was limited, as noted above, without the opportunity to implement and evaluate that CPD material. Putting all of these factors together, future work and research should see this study as a starting point and build on the

work I have started here using both qualitative and quantitative research tools, such as questionnaires, interviews, observations, focus groups, and case studies, to obtain more information and a deeper and broader understanding of the LEFLUTs and the ELT situation in Libyan universities. That future research should also involve officials from the education sector and universities in Libya, use a larger population and involve both LEFLUTs and the Libyan EFL university students who are the ultimate targets of CPD intended to improve teaching and learning. In addition, future research should explore all aspects of the LEFLUTs' knowledge base (see Chapter Three), their views and perceptions about teaching and learning and their practice and identify more thoroughly their PD needs and I give an example of this next.

I suggested earlier in his Chapter that it would be useful and necessary to investigate the LEFLUTs' content knowledge (CK) more thoroughly and future research, as well as evaluation of the CPD proposed here, could focus on the LEFLUT's CK. Unless the LEFLUTs have studied outside Libya they may not be aware of current developments, research and ideas in English Language Teaching (ELT). I have already noted, for instance, that most LEFLUTs might not be aware of discussion and theories about global English and intercultural communication. Similarly they may not be aware of current and related debate in the ELT world about the roles and value of native English speaker teachers (NESTs) versus non-native English speaker teachers (NNESTs) and, from their data in this study, the LEFLUTs do not seem aware that the very labels 'native speaker' and 'non-native speaker' are contested (see Holliday, 2015 on 'native speakerism' and Lowe and Kiczowskiak, 2016). A better awareness and understanding of these debates could help the LEFLUTs to think about concentrating on accuracy versus communicative, and intercultural communicative competence and global English for communication purposes and that would work alongside a focus on more communicative English language teaching and learning in their CPD.

I have already stated that the CPD material developed for this study is not complete or fixed and, from these examples, this is an area for future and ongoing research with the LEFLUTs and using the literature that will be needed to keep the CPD flexible and up-to-date. This future research, exploring all aspects of the LEFLUTs' knowledge base and their views and perceptions about teaching and learning and their practice with the identification of their professional development needs could usefully be done both before and during the implementation of the CPD material developed here. This evaluation of and research on the CPD should also include its impact on the LEFLUTs and their practice and students'

outcomes based on the CPD evaluation suggested in Chapter Seven. In addition, the ongoing evaluation of this CPD should, as noted, focus on ways in which the LEFLUTs' context might or might not mean that the predominantly Western models of CPD suggested for use are appropriate in this context. While this needs to be a focus for evaluation it should also be part of the future research plan as there is only limited research on the implementation of CPD in different, non-Western contexts.

Following this study, I would also recommend that future research should explore additional aspects of the LEFLUTs' knowledge and teaching, including how their qualifications and pre-service or undergraduate programmes align, or do not align, with the collaborative reflective learning approach suggested here and including communicative language teaching (CLT) and task-based language teaching (TBLT) as discussed in Chapter Three. As noted above, future research should also focus on Libyan EFL university students. That research, as suggested, could look at whether or not their results and attitudes toward English improved and changed after their teachers had participated in this CPD. In addition, the student focused research could explore their individual differences (IDs) and learning strategies in order to inform the LEFLUTs and to adapt and also provide new CPD related to students attitudes, aptitudes, perceptions, motivations and abilities. This would allow the CPD proposed here to include not only LEFLUTs' views and needs but also students' needs and views, more precisely. In addition, researchers in Libya, me included, might usefully focus on the ELT materials and methodologies adopted by the LEFLUTs and make suggestions for effective ELT material and appropriate methodologies to use these to good and better effect.

Beside the above future research ideas, there are also other recommendations that I suggests need to be considered by both the Libyan universities and the LEFLUTs and I present these in the next section.

8.5 Recommendations for the LEFLUTs and Libyan Universities

The findings of this study and my own experiences of learning and teaching English as Foreign Language (EFL) in Libyan schools and universities, suggest several recommendations to be considered by the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) and the Libyan Universities, hoping these recommendations will

provide the LEFLUTs with the support they need. First, I would advise the LEFLUTs, who seem to have reasonable knowledge and experience, with the provisos noted here, to adapt their practices and adopt more constructive approaches adapted as necessary to their situations and resources. For example, the LEFLUTs might use pair and groups activities, problem-solving tasks, role plays and interactive learning even when they teach large classes as discussed in Chapters Three, Four and Six. In addition, the LEFLUTs could provide material and activities that would motivate and involve their learners and keep them both more active and interested. This would need to be researched and evaluated with attention, as suggested above, to the learners themselves. CPD could also be enhanced and perhaps reinforced by encouraging the LEFLUTs to develop their knowledge and improve their practice and seek training through other channels such as watching videos or YouTube, attending online training or following online conferences and seminars. Research, perhaps by and certainly with the LEFLUTs themselves, could explore and evaluate internet resources and that could become another CPD element. As importantly, I would strongly advise the LEFLUTs to take the initiative and support each other and I will need to ensure that this is built-in to the CPD material and that I encourage the LEFLUTs to share this approach with their fellow teachers.

At the same time, I would like to propose that the Libyan universities should support the LEFLUTs through the provision of both formal and informal CPD activities such as those presented here. For example, Libyan universities could promote communities of practice among the LEFLUTs and organise and facilitate seminars, conferences and periodic meetings between the LEFLUTs. This might encourage the LEFLUTs to collaborate, reflect on and share their teaching and learning experiences. Ultimately, my aim would be for the Libyan universities to reform their current policies, which appear to be based on transmissive and rote learning cultures, to adopt more collaborative approaches to education whereby teachers and learners are given more power, autonomy and support to plan their learning and construct and continually develop their own knowledge. I am aware that this will take time and attention to such major and systems change might also inform the CPD suggested here, perhaps with the addition of sessions on policy and change in order to hope the LEFLUTs studying this CPD can become change agents in their own universities. In addition, the Libyan universities could coordinate with the Libyan schools in terms of the ELT material, methodologies, teacher training and related research in order that learners coming to the universities are better prepared for what I hope will be more effective methodologies and approaches to learning and teaching. Finally, Libyan

universities might usefully create and engage in dialogues with international universities and organise exchange programmes for the Libyan EFL university students and teachers. This could provide opportunities for Libyan university staff to benefit from the expertise and advice of world leading universities and ELT practitioners. It could be done using technology to support it and for both teachers and students this would mean better access to alternative ways of learning and teaching English as well as opportunities to practise English with others across the world. I am aware, however, that there could be some political resistance to this and it would depend on very practical issues such as a stable electricity supply and internet access.

Throughout this thesis I have noted the challenges for LEFLUTs in Libya today and these have influenced this study and so I reflect on the study and ways in which it has personally and professionally impacted on me in the next section.

8.6 Personal Professional Reflections

This research has been a long journey with many ups and downs. It has been an interesting experience that has enriched me academically, personally, culturally and professionally. This study has deepened my understanding of qualitative research methodology and data collection as used here and with reference to the research here and the research suggested for the future. In addition, this study has increased my own knowledge and skills of ELT and expanded my understanding of CPD. Looking back at the inspiration for this study, I would say that one of the most important findings of this study is that it has revealed that challenges for the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) appears to be more than their qualification or experience. It has become evident that the LEFLUTs might have done and might do much better with the provision of appropriate support and effective CPD activities through which they could teach more proficiently and confidently and effectively. I have learned that all of the areas of concern are inter-related and that LEFLUT work is hard work with demands and challenges that mean they deserve support.

Personally, I have become more patient, tolerant and determined. I have also become more organised and efficient in terms of managing my own time and planning my own professional development (PD). Looking at the LEFLUTs' situation, I am inspired by the efforts they are making to keep up-to-date and to develop and support their learners. On the cultural level, this research has allowed me to engage with people from diverse cultures

and locations from all over the world, including some I had only heard of or seen on TV and never met before. It also taught me many things even about my own culture, being an Arab Muslim, by meeting people from different Middle Eastern and African countries in a completely different environment and all of these experiences confirm my view that exposure to and the opportunity to meet and work with others from different backgrounds and cultures is valuable for any teacher and perhaps especially for teachers of language. Finally, I have learned that with strong will and determination nothing is impossible, but this study has also taught me about the power of good support and, professionally, it will be my job now to offer whatever support I can to LEFLUTs while I continue to learn with and from others.

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Appendices

Appendix One Key Historical Events in Libya

1. The Ottoman and Italian Period	
1551	The Ottoman empire conquers Libya
1711	Ahmed Bey Qaramanli, the Ottoman governor of Tripoli, defeats the Ottomans and establishes the Qaramanli dynasty
1835	The Ottomans defeat the Qaramanli and establish the second Ottoman Empire in Libya
1911	Italy sends the Ottoman sultan an ultimatum, announcing its intent to occupy Tripolitania and Cyrenaica
October 1912	The Ottoman Empire and Italy sign an ambiguous agreement at Ouchy, Italy, claiming sovereignty while Constantinople refuses to renounce its claim
1912	Ahmad al-Sharif assumes the leadership of resistance against the Italians in Cyrenaica
April 1917	Sayyid Idris al-Sanusi, now head of the Sanusiyyah, signs the Akrama Agreement with Italy, which placed virtually all of Cyrenaica under Sanusi control
August 1940	During a meeting in Cairo with Libyan exiles, Sayyid Idris al-Sanusi is authorized to negotiate with the British after the war for independence
October-December 1942	Second battle of al-Alamein. As a result of the battles in Cyrenaica and western Egypt, the Italian settlers leave Cyrenaica and the Italians withdraw from Libya
1943	The Allies' expulsion of Germany and Italy from North Africa leads to the creation of a British Military Administration in Tripolitania and Cyrenaica, and of a French Military Administration in Fezzan
2. Libya in the Aftermath of World War II	
21 November 1949	The United Nations General Assembly passes a resolution creating an "independent and sovereign state" of Libya, assigning to a future National Assembly the task of creating a provisional government of Libya
25 November 1949	Libya's National Assembly, consisting of sixty selected members chosen equally from the three provinces – Tripolitania, Cyrenaica, and Fezzan meets in Tripoli for the first time in order to prepare the country's constitution. It declares that Libya will be a federal state
2 December 1950	Libya's National Assembly decides to create as soon as possible a United Kingdom of Libya and offers Idris al-Sanusi the throne
3. The Libyan Monarchy	
24 December 1951	The United Kingdom of Libya proclaims its independence and is headed by King Idris al-Sanusi
April 1963	The federal arrangement is abandoned in favour of a unitary state
4. The Gadhafi Period	
1 September 1969	A military coup, headed by Mu'ammarr al- Gadhafi, overthrows the monarchy
5 June 1971	All foreign cultural centres, except that of France, are closed
16 April 1973	Gadhafi issues his third Universal theory and announces the popular revolution in a speech at Zuwara

8 June 1973	Libya accuses the United States of infringing its 100-mile “restricted air zone” of the Mediterranean coast. Tripoli expels a U.S. diplomat for not having an Arabic passport
4 February 1977	Libya is added to the United States Defense Department’s list of potential enemies of the United States
6 May 1981	The United States closes the Libyan embassy in Washington
10 March 1982	The United States bans all exports except food and medicine to Libya; the import of Libyan oil into the United States is prohibited
17 April 1984	British policewoman Yvonne Fletcher is fatally shot by Libyan security personnel outside the Libyan embassy in London, leading to a rupture in British–Libyan relations
6 May 1986	The leaders of the G7 countries vow to Fight terrorism and single out Libya as a major perpetrator
15 November 1991	Libya is indicted by the United States and Great Britain in connection with the 1988 Lockerbie bombing of Pan Am 103. Two Libyans are charged with the bombing
5 April 1999	Libya agrees to surrender the two Lockerbie suspects for trial in the Netherlands
23 April 2004	A number of U.S. economic sanctions are lifted, allowing trade between Libya and the United States to proceed
May 2008	The United States and Libya agree in principle on compensation settlements for Lockerbie, the La Belle discotheque bombing, and the 1989 UTA airliner
17 February 2011	The uprising against the Gadhafi regime starts in Benghazi
21 February 2011	Diplomats at the Libyan mission to the United Nations side with the revolt
26 February 2011	The United Nations Security Council imposes sanctions on Gadhafi and his family and refers Libya to the International Criminal Court. It also asks the International Criminal Court to investigate human rights abuses
5. The 17th February Revolution	
28 February 2011	The European Union approves sanctions, including an arms embargo and travel ban
5 March 2011	An interim national council meets in Benghazi and declares itself the sole representative of the Libyan people.
19 March 2011	U.S.-led coalition air strikes commence and halt the advance of Gadhafi ’s forces on Benghazi
31 March 2011	NATO takes over command of operations in Libya
20 October 2011	Mu’ammarr al-Gadhafi is killed in Sirt
23 October 2011	Libya’s Transitional National Council issues the country’s Declaration of Liberation in Benghazi

Key Historical Events in Libya: Adopted from Vandewalle (2012, pp. xvii-xxxv)

Appendix Two Philosophy and Aims of Libyan Education

1. Freedom of learning is guaranteed for all, through the institutions of public education, participatory and open free education, continuing education, distance learning and developed and alternative patterns of education.
2. Basic education is compulsory for all, free at public education institution.
3. Secondary education is optional, and it will pave the way for the involvement of outstanding students in undergraduate and postgraduate studies.
4. All educational institutions of various types and patterns are subject to uniform standards.
5. Participatory education at different stages is not free and non-profit.
6. Encourage kindergartens, and disseminate them locally, without including it within the educational structure.
- 7.
8. The society ensures the satisfaction of the student's special needs, either the defaulters or excelled in their studies and the talented.
9. Provide educational services to students who excelled in their studies, according to the disciplines that the society needs.
10. Run educational institutions by qualified educational officials who are able to interact and harmonise with the social environment.
11. The distribution of educational institutions in accordance with a national map that responds to the requirements of quality, and take into account population density, physical activity and geographic expansion and achieve the requirements of development and meet the social demand for education.
12. Support participatory education institutions, and consider them as part of the education system, and develop and assist them, and identify their schools fees, and adopt their curricula and certificates, and follow up their work to conform with the institutions of public education, and subject them to the same controls and standards, and urge them to provide new areas of education, that do not defecate the principle of equal educational opportunities or the output level of education.
13. The application of the idea of private teacher, and encouraged it, and develop the continuing, open and free education systems, techniques and programmes, and crate new patterns of teaching and learning.
14. The consolidation of the relationship between the teacher and institutions he graduated from, to enable him to continuing education, and keeping pace with scientific and educational development in his field of specialization.
15. Continuous curriculum development, and review its objectives, and update teaching methods, and systems for assessment and measurement, to ensure the quality of outputs of the educational institutions.
16. Enhance the performance of all official employees, teachers, educators and inspectors, social workers, and administrators, through periodical and continuing special training and upgrading programs and courses.
17. Develop regulations of the educational process to ensure discipline and commitment within the educational institution and achieve the sector's targets in human development.

18. Financing education is the responsibility of the state and participatory educational institutions in order to ease the burden on the society budget and achieve free education for those who cannot make use of national service (The Libyan Ministry of Education, 2008, pp.3-4).

Appendix Three Libyan English as Foreign Language (EFL) Policy

1. To assist the pupils to manipulate the English language as a linguistic system: phonology, morphology, syntax and discourse.
2. To provide a functional competence in the four skills – listening, speaking, reading and writing – sufficient for real-life use and as a foundation for future studies.
3. To provide students with the basic vocabulary and language to be able discuss topics related to their specialisation.
4. To lay out the foundations of self-study in English to enable the pupils to continue learning after school.
5. To provide the potential for pursuing academic studies or practical training in English-speaking countries or in countries where English is, for some subjects, the medium of instruction.
6. By exploiting the pupils' command of English, to spread throughout the world a better understanding and appreciation of their own religion and cultural values, and to influence world opinion favourably towards their people and causes.
7. To contribute to the pupils' intellectual, educational, social and personal development, to cultivate critical thinking and promote the ability to make sound judgements.
8. To help the pupils to appreciate the value of learning English, as the most widely used language in the world today.
9. To raise awareness of the important role English can play in:
 - a. The general national development (social, economic, industrial and cultural).
 - b. Enriching the national language and culture in knowledge, technology and experience through translation.
 - c. International affairs.
10. To encourage the pupils to appreciate the value of learning English, as the most widely used language in the world today, in order to communicate with English speaking people for the purpose of:
 - a. Gaining access to knowledge in various fields (including, for example, technical terminology that has international currency).
 - b. Expanding cultural awareness and arriving at a deeper appreciation of both cultures.
 - c. Increasing the possibility of understanding, friendship and cooperation with all speakers of English (Adrian-Vallance and Donno, 2009).

Appendix Four Scenarios

1. The Audiolingual Classroom:

This is a Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teacher (LEFLUT) with ten years teaching experience. In order to involve the learners, she uses visuals such as pictures, diagrams and real objects. At the same time, she uses drilling, memorisation, and the learners' mother tongue to present her lessons. For example, she starts the lesson by asking the students to open the book on a certain page, or she reads out the title of the lesson to the students and asks for translation of the title and expected lesson. Then she starts reading, explaining and translating everything to the learners who listen and write the translation or notes in the book.

What do you notice about this lesson? Is it similar to one of your own lessons?

2. The experienced LEFLUT:

This is a LEFLUT who has been teaching for more than ten years. He has got background knowledge about teaching approaches and techniques such as learner-centred approaches and autonomy and sufficient subject matter knowledge. Because of his experience and age as well as long time in the department, he has developed his own way of teaching using traditional methods. "This is the way I do it; I summarise the course and the students memorise it", he explains!

Should the teacher make any changes to the way he teaches?

3. Informal Meeting:

A group of LEFLUTs sat for tea after their classes in the teachers' room. This time they started talking about their experiences and professional development. They discussed the problems each of them faces in teaching their courses. One of them said "I cannot teach my course as it is recommended because it is different from the way I was taught by my teachers. Our teachers used to translate and explain everything for us, and we memorised the lessons for the exams; I do not know how to use the book in a different way".

What would you say in this situation?

4. The Literature Class:

This is a LEFLUT who is teaching literature to his Libyan English as Foreign Language University Students at university "S". He begins the lesson by giving handouts to the students. He asks them to read through and then he discusses the topic with the whole class. Before the exams, he reviews the lectures that the learners studied, excludes some things and points out exactly what the students have to study. When he was asked by one of his colleagues whether his students understand the topic, whether they are enjoying his classes and whether they are interacting with him, he replied "I just worry about completing my course; I do not think about how I do it"!

What would you say to this teacher?

5. The Linguistics Class:

This is a LEFLUT linguistics class. The class is being monitored by an educational inspector. The teacher delivered the lesson in the following way: he explained language point and the learners

wrote down his notes and translation without having much role in the classroom except of that of a receiver of the information. After the lesson the inspector asked the teacher to try and be more creative and use more learner-centred approaches. The inspector asked the teacher to encourage the learners solve the problems and work out the answers themselves, work in groups when they do the exercises. He suggested should assist them where necessary. “I do not have time and my class is too large to be divided in groups”. My students like my way of teaching and they always get high marks in their exams, “the teacher replied.

What would you say to this teacher?

6. Departmental Progress Meeting:

This is a meeting held by the LEFLUTs at the beginning of the term. The teachers have prior knowledge of the meeting and are expected to attend with suggestions and ideas for the new term based on what they experienced last term. Some of the LEFLUTs think that there is a need for opportunities for professional development. However other teachers think that there is no need for such courses. They explain, “we do not need training; we are already qualified teachers and know everything about our courses”.

Which group of teachers do you agree with?

7. A LEFLUTs’ Meeting:

A group of LEFLUTs sat for tea after their classes in the teachers’ room. As usual they started talking about their experiences and the teaching situation in general. They complained, “we are assigned 24 hrs contact time”; “with this work on our shoulders, we barely prepare our lessons and think about our teaching”.

What might help these teachers deal with this situation?

8. The Grammar and Writing Teachers:

These are two LEFLUTs having a conversation over a cup of tea. Like most situations they started talking about their classes and teaching. One of them is teaching grammar. She happily stated, “I always enjoy my classes; they are all fun as I use games and role-plays to teach grammar to my students, and they enjoy it”. The other teacher is teaching writing. He moaned “I hardly prepare my lessons and think about how I present it to my students”. I don’t have time.

What is the difference between the two teachers?

9. End of Terms Meeting

This was a meeting held by the LEFLUTs at the end of their term to discuss what problems they faced last term and what solutions or recommendations could be offered. Some of the teachers complained that they had no resources for development! They sometimes found themselves stuck in their classes and struggled with their materials because they did not receive any courses or training on how to teach. They just imitated the teachers who had taught them and tried to work out for themselves what suits them and their classes!

If you were in this meeting would you have a solution or recommendation? What would it be?

10. Professional Development Plans

A group of LEFLUTs held a meeting to discuss what was needed for them to perform better with their students and develop their practice. According to some of them, the only thing they needed was refresher courses on teaching skills such as: preparing lessons, managing classes, teaching techniques and approaches. Others believed that they have enough teaching skills to enable them teach their material effectively, but there are constraints which hinder them from applying effective teaching skills. Some of these obstacles include: large classes, limited time, and heavy timetable.

What would you say if you were in the meeting?

Appendix Five Ethics Committee Approval



College of Social
Sciences

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Application Approved

Ethics Committee for Non-Clinical Research Involving Human Subjects

Staff Research Ethics Application ☐

Postgraduate Student Research Ethics Application ☒

Application Details

Application Number: 400440237

Applicant's Name: Salah Omar

Project Title: Developing a model of CPD for the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs)

Application Status: Approved

Start Date of Approval: 15.08.15

End Date of Approval of Research Project: 30.09.16

Please retain this notification for future reference. If you have any [enquiries](#) please email socsci-ethics@glasgow.ac.uk.

University of Glasgow
College of Social Sciences
Florentine House, 53 Hillhead Street, Glasgow G12 8QF
The University of Glasgow, charity number SC004401

E-mail: socsci-ethics@glasgow.ac.uk

7/12/2015

RE: EAF - Outlook Web Access Light

Microsoft Office Outlook Web Access

Type here to search This Folder Address Book Options Log Off

Mail Calendar Contacts Deleted Items (365) Drafts Inbox Junk E-Mail Sent Items

Click to view all folders Manage Folders...

RE: EAF
Eleanor Rae on behalf of Bob Davis

Sent: 06 July 2015 09:14
To: Salah O.i. Omar
Cc: Esther Daborn; Bob Davis; Vivienne Baumfield

Dear Salah

Yes, you have my full permission.

Yours sincerely

Prof Robert A. Davis
Head of School of Education
University of Glasgow
St Andrew's Building
Eldon Street
Glasgow
G3 6NH
Scotland
UK
T ++44(0)141 330 3002/3001
Robert.Davis@glasgow.ac.uk
<http://www.gla.ac.uk/schools/education/staff/robertdavis/>
The University of Glasgow, Charity Number SC004401

Journal of Philosophy of Education
The Journal of the Philosophy of Education Society of Great Britain, published by Wiley-Blackwell
Edited by Bob Davis

The Continuum Library of Educational Thought, Volume 25: Robert Owen (Continuum, 2010)
By Robert A. Davis and Francis J. O'Hagan.

Teacher Training ranked 1st in the National Student Survey 2014

-----Original Message-----
From: Salah O.i. Omar
Sent: 29 June 2015 00:51
To: Esther Daborn; Bob Davis; Vivienne Baumfield
Subject: EAF

Dear Dr. Davis

my name is Salah Omar. I am doing a research part of my PhD study at the University of Glasgow I will be recruiting Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs) to take part in scenarios to investigate the views about professional development and training possibilities for them.

I was told that I need to get a permission from you to get access to them. I am seeking your advice and help?

Regards, Salah

Appendix Seven Participant Information Sheet: Scenarios



College of Social
Sciences

Participant Information Sheet

Study title and Researcher Details

Developing a model of Continuing Professional Development (CPD) for the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs)

Researcher: Salah Omar, school of Education s.omar.1@research.gla.ac.uk; Mob: 07462024924

Principal supervisor: Dr. Esther Daborn, e-mail: Esther.Daborn@glasgow.ac.uk

Second supervisor: Prof. Vivienne Baumfield, e-mail: Vivienne.Baumfield@glasgow.ac.uk

PhD Research Project

You are being invited to take part in a research study. Before you decide it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. Ask us if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part. You can also withdraw at any stage and ask for your data to be withdrawn.

Thank you for reading this.

What is the purpose of the study?

The aim of the study is to develop a model of continuing professional development that is appropriate for Libyan English as a Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs). As part of my needs analysis, I want to find out your opinion of various examples of current practice in the work of LEFLUTs. I have developed these examples into 'scenarios' from the LEFLUT workplace as starting points to get your views.

Why have I been chosen?

I wish to find out the views of Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers. You are a LEFLUT, so this is why you were chosen and asked to respond to these scenarios.

Do I have to take part?

It is not obligatory to take part in this study if you do not want to, but your participation will be appreciated and your views will be very important.

What will happen to me if I take part?

You will read a number of scenarios and answer questions for each story. Responding to these scenarios will probably take you around 30 to 45 minutes.

Will my taking part in this study be kept confidential?

All the information collected about you will be kept strictly confidential. You will be identified by a code and any information about you will have your name and address removed so that you cannot be recognised from it. Your responses will be de-identified and analysed for inclusion in my PhD. The raw data will be stored electronically on my computer and any paper versions of the material will be kept in a locked filing cabinet in my office at the university. These electronic files and papers will be deleted from the computer and shredded when the dissertation is handed in. However, it should be noted that it will not be possible to maintain confidentiality in the case of disclosure of evidence of wrongdoing.

What will happen to the results of the research study?

The findings of the whole study will be available in my thesis.

Who has reviewed the study?

The research the project has been reviewed by the College of Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee.

Contact for Further Information

Dr. Esther Daborn, e-mail: Esther.Daborn@glasgow.ac.uk

If you have any concerns regarding the conduct of this research project, you can contact the College of Social Sciences Ethics Officer Dr Muir Houston, email: Muir.Houston@glasgow.ac.uk

Appendix Eight Consent Form: Scenarios

College of Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee



College of Social
Sciences

Consent Form

Title of Project: Developing a model of Continuing Professional Development (CPD) for the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs)

Name of Researcher: Salah Omar, e-mail: s.omar.1@research.gla.ac.uk

Principal Supervisor: Dr. Esther Daborn, e-mail: Esther.Daborn@glasgow.ac.uk

Second Supervisor: Dr. Beth Dickson, e-mail: Beth.Dickson@glasgow.ac.uk

I confirm that I have read and understood the Participant Information Sheet about the scenarios for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions about what is involved.

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason.

I consent / do not consent to take part in the scenarios.

I acknowledge that participants will be identified by pseudonym in any publications arising from the research.

I understand that the data collected from this research will be stored securely with my personal details removed and agree for it to be held as set out in the Plain Language Statement.

Name of Participant: Signature:.....

Date:.....

Name of Researcher: Signature:.....

Date:

Appendix Nine Ethics Committee Approval: Focus Group



College of Social
Sciences

Request for Amendments - Reviewer Feedback

Ethics Committee for Non-Clinical Research Involving Human Subjects

Staff Research Ethics Application ☐

Postgraduate Student Research Ethics Application ☒

Application Details

Application Number: 400140237

Applicant's Name: Sala O I Omar

Project Title: Developing a model of CPD for the Libyan English as a Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUT)

Original Date of Application Approval: 20/07/2015

Date of Amendments Approved: 23/10/2015

Outcome: Amendments Approved

Reviewer Comments

Maybe mention on the PIS for focus groups that other members of then focus group maybe be able to identify individual respondent responses, so confidentiality cannot be guaranteed in these circumstances.



College of Social
Sciences

Participant Information Sheet

Study title and Researcher Details

Developing a model of Continuing Professional Development (CPD) for the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs)

Researcher: Salah Omar, school of Education s.omar.1@research.gla.ac.uk; Mob: 07462024924

Principal supervisor: Dr. Esther Daborn, e-mail: Esther.Daborn@glasgow.ac.uk

Second supervisor: Dr. Beth Dickson, e-mail: Beth.Dickson@glasgow.ac.uk

PhD Research Project

Thank you for participating in my study by completing the 10 scenarios about teaching English in a Libyan University. I would now like to ask you to participate in a focus group to discuss these issues in more detail. Before you decide it is important for you to understand why the focus group is necessary and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. Ask us if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part. You can also withdraw at any stage and ask for your data to be withdrawn.

Thank you for reading this.

What is the purpose of the focus group?

After you participated and completed the 10 scenarios, some interesting ideas and useful thoughts emerged from your responses. Now I would like to explore your views about certain issues listed below in more details to help with the aim of my study: to develop a model of continuing professional development that is appropriate for Libyan English as a Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs). As part of my needs analysis, I want to find out more detail about your opinion on issues concerning the LEFLUTs professional learning, teaching practice and knowledge. If you decide to get involved in this, you will be involved on a focus group involving three teachers including yourself and the researcher who will be leading the discussion. The focus group will take no more than 25 minutes. Some of the issues we will explore are:

- a- Your views about the skills or knowledge the LEFLUTs need to develop.
- b- Your views and ideas about the activities to be included in a CPD program designed for the LEFLUTs.

- c- Your attitudes and thoughts about the features of training program designed for the LEFLUTs (workshops/coaching/pair teaching/observation and reflection).
- d- Your idea about the method of delivering CPD (in-service/pre-service/post-service)

Why have I been chosen?

I wish to find out in more details your views about the issues listed above concerning professional development and training of LEFLUTs. You already responded to the 10 scenarios, so this is why you were chosen and asked to take part in this focus group.

Do I have to take part?

It is not obligatory to take part in this study if you do not want to, but your participation will be appreciated and your views will be very important.

What will happen to me if I take part?

You will participate in a focus group with two other LEFLUTs and myself. The discussion will probably take you around 25 minutes.

Will my taking part in this study be kept confidential?

All the information collected about you will be kept strictly confidential. You and your information will be identified by a code so that you cannot be recognised from it. Your responses will be de-identified and analysed for inclusion in my PhD. The recorded focus group will be transferred and stored on my computer in my office at the university. Then the original recording will be erased from the recording instrument. The recorded focus group will be deleted from the computer when the dissertation is handed in. Please note that confidentiality will be maintained as far as it possible, unless during our conversation I hear anything which makes me worried that someone might be in danger of harm, I might have to inform relevant agencies of this.

What will happen to the results of the research study?

The findings of the whole study will be available in my thesis.

Who has reviewed the study?

The research the project has been reviewed by the College of Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee.

Contact for Further Information

Dr. Esther Daborn, e-mail: Esther.Daborn@glasgow.ac.uk

If you have any concerns regarding the conduct of this research project, you can contact the College of Social Sciences Ethics Officer Dr Muir Houston, email: Muir.Houston@glasgow.ac.uk

Appendix Eleven Consent Forms: Focus Group

College of Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee



College of Social
Sciences

Consent Form

Title of Project: Developing a model of Continuing Professional Development (CPD) for the Libyan English as Foreign Language University Teachers (LEFLUTs)

Name of Researcher: Salah Omar, e-mail: s.omar.1@research.gla.ac.uk

Principal Supervisor: Dr. Esther Daborn, e-mail: Esther.Daborn@glasgow.ac.uk

Second Supervisor: Dr. Beth Dickson, e-mail: Beth.Dickson@glasgow.ac.uk

I confirm that I have read and understood the Participant Information Sheet about the focus group for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions about what is involved.

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason.

I consent / do not consent to the focus group being audio recorded.

I acknowledge that participants will be identified by pseudonym in any publications arising from the research.

I understand that the data collected from this research will be stored securely with my personal details removed and agree for it to be held as set out in the Plain Language Statement.

Name of Participant: Signature:.....

Date:.....

Name of Researcher: Signature:.....

Date:

Appendix Twelve Contact Summary Sheet

What	
Why	
When	
Where	
Who	
For Whom	
How	
How Long	

Contact Summary Sheet: Adopted from Miles and Huberman (1994, pp. 51-52)

Appendix Thirteen Workshops (1-6) Interactive Learning

This workshop series consists of six workshops and focuses on more specific approaches and techniques to teaching language skills (reading/speaking/listening/writing) and language components (grammar/vocabulary). These themes represent the sort of skills and knowledge that the literature on EFL and ESL teacher development tries to help the EFL/ESL teacher develop (Littlewood, 1981; Nunan, 1989a; Richards, 1998; Richards and Renandya, 2002; Nunan, 2004; Harmer, 2007; Thornbury and Watkins, 2007; Johnson, 2009; Harmer, 2010). Secondly, the data from all the research tools and sources indicates that this is the sort of knowledge that the LEFLUTs need to develop in order to enhance their teaching practice. Beside developing the LEFLUTs knowledge and enhancing their teaching practice, these workshops would also provide them a variety of approaches and techniques to apply in different situations with different students.

a. The Aims of the Workshops

- Introduce different approaches and techniques to teaching language skills and components
- Identify appropriate and applicable approaches and techniques to teaching language skills and components
- Relate the different teaching approaches and techniques to teaching language skills and components to their practice

b. The Intended Learning Outcomes

- Demonstrate developing understanding of the different approaches and techniques to teaching language skills and components
- Consider other ways to approaching teaching language skills and components
- Apply different approaches and techniques to teaching language skills to their own classroom situation.

a. Aims of the Workshop

- Introduce the participants to various types of reading texts
- Identify the main principles of developing reading skills
- Consider different approaches and techniques to teaching reading skills

b. Intended Learning Outcomes

- Become aware of the different purposes and strategies of reading
- Demonstrate understanding of how comprehension is achieved in reading
- Apply these principles to their own teaching situation

Activity One: Lead in: Which of the following text types do you read? Put a tick (✓) in the first column.

Compare your answers with your partner (adopted from British Council, 2015)

text messages		
newspaper articles		
reports		
postcards		
emails		
public notices		
stories		
advertisements		

1. Why do you think it is important to use a variety of text types when teaching reading?
2. Which of the above text types do you use with your students? Put a tick (✓) in the second column.

Compare your answers with your partner

3. Listen to this recording of a collection of interviews with teachers and learners from around the world. Think about the following:

- Listen for any points that match your own experience of teaching reading
- What challenges are mentioned in the interviews? Write your answers in the table

Reading challenges	
Teachers	Learners
a.	a.
b.	b.
c.	c.

Listen again to the recording. Note down the suggested approaches and put a tick (✓) next to the ones you have tried with your learners:

	Suggested Approaches Reading Challenges	My Class
--	---	----------

1		
2		
3		
4		
5		

Activity Two: prediction: Read and discuss the following information with your partner (adopted from Alden and Moore, 2016, p. 10 and Chamot et al., 1999, pp. 209-215)

- Using the title, visuals (photos or graphs), sub-headings and first sentence often helps anticipate the content of the text
- Thinking about and knowing the vocabulary you might expect to find about the topic of the text
- Reading the first sentence of each paragraph often gives clues as to the content of the paragraph
- Using background knowledge often helps comprehend and predict the reading text

1. Read the following information about predicting:

- Use the title, any visuals such as photos or graphs, sub-headings and first sentence to anticipate the content of the text
- Think about the vocabulary you might expect to find about the topic of the text
- Read the first sentence of each paragraph – it often gives clues as to the content of the paragraph

Activity Three: Quiz: the Texts You Read (adopted from Thaine, 2010, p. 17)

1. Read the information below. For each question choose the best answer:

- c. You cross an article about a film you have just seen, and you want to know if the writer enjoyed it as much as you did. How do you read it?
 - By looking for individual words and/or numbers.
 - By looking for any vocabulary that is known to you and checking it in a dictionary.
 - Quite quickly to get a general idea of the writer's opinion.
 - d. You have just received a contract for a new job. Before you sign it, how do you read it?
 - Very thoroughly, focusing in detail on all the information in the contract.
 - Intensively looking for spelling or punctuation mistakes.
 - By scanning to count the number of clauses in the contract.
 - e. A newspaper article you are interested in includes a few words you do not know the meaning of. How do you read it?
 - Stopping and starting to look up each new word in a dictionary.
 - At a normal rate, trying to guess the meaning of new words.
 - At a normal rate, skipping the sentences that contain difficult words.
 - f. You want to know what time the next train home is. How do you read your local train timetable?
 - From the beginning until you find the relevant page.
 - By flicking through the pages to locate the specific piece of information you need.
 - Quickly to find out the different places the timetable refers to.
2. You are doing some research into different viewpoints of a key historical event. You come across an article by an unknown writer. How do you read it?
- Quite quickly to look for any facts.
 - By searching the text, looking for any difficult words.
 - Quite carefully to find out whether you can detect any political bias.
2. Match the reading sub-skills terms below with the answers to activity 8.1.3.1 above
- a. Skim/gist reading
 - b. Reading to infer textual meaning
 - c. Scan reading
 - d. Close reading
 - e. Reading to infer vocabulary meaning

Appendix Fifteen Workshop (2) Teaching Grammar

a. Aims of the Workshop

- Introduce the participants to various types of reading texts
- Identify the main principles of developing reading skills
- Consider different approaches and techniques to teaching reading skills

b. Intended Learning Outcomes

- Become aware of the different purposes and strategies of reading
- Demonstrate understanding of how comprehension is achieved in reading
- Apply these principles to their own teaching situation

Activity One: Quiz Test: Different Approaches (adopted from Thaine (2010, p. 29)

1. You are going to look at three different approaches to teaching grammar. In your group, read the following points on the first approach and order them according to stages:
 - The teacher checks the meaning by asking concept checking questions
 - Learners answer comprehension questions about information in the text
 - Learners read (or listen to) a text
 - The learners do a controlled practice task to check their understanding of the form and meaning
 - The teacher highlights the form of the target language
 - The teacher sets a task that allows learners to discover one or two examples of the target language in the text, without necessarily saying what the grammar point is. The teacher writes an example on the board
2. Now read the following notes on the second approach and order the stages in logical order:
 - The teacher writes up errors associated with target language on the board and elicits corrections
 - The teacher asks learners to redo the original task or another similar task that also encourages the use of the target language
 - The teacher uses oral concept checking questions to check the meaning of the correct language on the board
 - The teacher listens to the learners and notes down any errors they make in using the target language
 - The teacher checks the form of the language at the board
 - Learners do a freer oral practice task that encourages the use of the target language the teacher wants to focus on in the lesson
3. Now read the last approach and order the stages
 - The teacher elicits (or gives) an example sentence of the target language, perhaps writing it on the board
 - The teacher uses oral concept checking questions to check the meaning of the target language

- The teacher uses visuals and word prompts to build a context that will generate examples of the target language
 - The teacher writes up key words (prompts) on the board that are clearly connected to the context. These are used to model and drill examples of the target language
 - Having checked understanding of the new language, the teacher highlights the form and then rubs the example sentence off the board
 - The teacher elicits an example of the target language on the board for a second time and highlights aspects of pronunciation that have just been practiced
4. Look at the answers and check if your answers were correct
 - First approach: 3-2-6-1-5-4
 - Second approach: 6-4-1-3-5-2
 - Third approach: 3-1-2-5-4-6
 5. Match the following terms with each approach above
 - Context-build approach
 - Text-based approach
 - Test-teach-test approach

Appendix Sixteen Workshop (3) Teaching Writing

a. Aims of the Workshop

- Introduce the participants to different writing styles
- Identify the main principles of developing writing skills
- Consider different approaches and techniques to developing writing skills

b. Intended Learning Outcomes

- Be able to identify different writing styles
- Understand the principles of writing process and ways of developing it
- Apply these principles to their own teaching situation

Activity One: Lead in (adopted from British Council 2015)

1. What Kind of texts do you write? Why? Discuss with your partner.
2. There are many reasons for writing? Why are these reasons important to teaching writing? Discuss with your partner.
3. What challenges do you and your students face when teaching and learning writing? Compare your answer with your partner.
4. Listen to this recording of a collection of interviews with teachers and learners from around the world. Think about the following:
 - Listen for any points that match your own experience of teaching writing.
 - What challenges are mentioned in the interviews? Write your answers in the table.

Writing challenges	
Teachers	Learners
a.	a.
b.	b.
c.	c.

- Listen again to the recording. Note down the suggested approaches and put a tick (✓) next to the ones you have tried with your learners:

Suggested Approaches Writing Challenges	My Class

5. When you write about something, how do you go about? How do you start and finish? There are four stages for writing process:
- Pre-writing: using your plan and ideas to write a rough version.
 - Drafting: presenting the pieces of writing to the readers.
 - Editing: checking, making alterations and re-writing.
 - Publishing: generating ideas and planning what to write.
6. Look at the following writing sub-skills and match each one to a stage of writing process:

Writing Sub-skills			
planning	evaluation	brainstorming	re-ordering
structuring	mind-mapping	revising	focusing on grammar and vocabulary
checking	forming opinions	restructuring	presenting finished piece to readers
putting ideas into sentences	selecting/ rejecting ideas	planning out the paragraphs	

Stages of Writing Process	
Process writing stages	Sub-skills
Pre-writing	
Drafting	
Editing	
Publishing	

Appendix Seventeen Workshop (4) Teaching Listening

a. Aims of the Workshop

- Introduce the participants to various purposes of listening
- Understand top-down and bottom-up skills involved in listening
- Identify key principles of developing listening skills

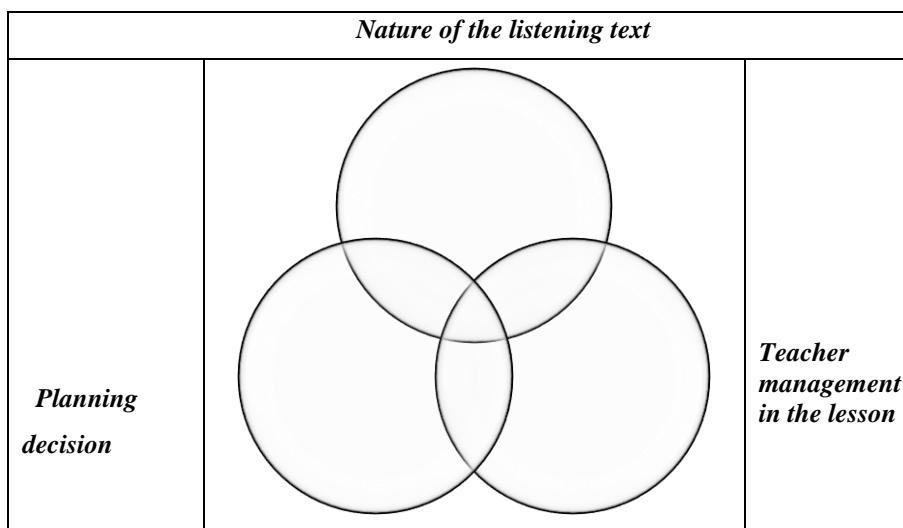
b. Intended Learning Outcomes

- Demonstrate understanding of different purposes of listening by using different activities and material that reflect these purposes
- Use teaching material and learning activities that represent top-down and bottom-up listening skill with the learners
- Demonstrate ability to apply the principles of teaching and learning listening to their own teaching situation

Activity One: Lead in (adopted from Thaine, 2010, p. 18)

1. In your group, think about how many different texts you have read or listened to.
2. In your opinion, what are the key differences between reading and listening lessons?
3. What challenges of listening do you usually face?
4. Sort the following list of problems associated with listening lessons into the Venn diagram. Some problems can be placed in more than one category.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. The speed of the speech in the dialogue was too fast | 2. The listening took place at the end of the lesson when the learners were tired |
| 3. The task was too challenging | 4. The instructions for the listening task were unclear |
| 5. The CD was not cued and learners got confused about what they should be listening to | 6. There was no lead for the listening text |
| 7. The recording of the dialogue was not clear | 8. Learners did not get a chance to check their answers to the task in pairs before doing feedback |
| 9. The speakers in the dialogue used a strong regional accent | 10. The teacher forgot to explain the context of the dialogue |
| 11. The vocabulary in the listening text is quite difficult | 12. The subject of the conversation was not particularly interesting for the learners |



Activity Two: developing the students listening through: pre-listening/while listening/post listening framework (adopted from Crace and Acklam 2011, pp. 12-14)

1. The questions below are from a work/life balance survey. What do you think the results of the survey were?
 - I think that less than half the group often works late at the office.
 - I think that hardly anyone has ever done any voluntary work.
 - Do you ever work/study late either at the office/school or at home?
 - Have you ever done any voluntary work?
 - How many evening classes do you do? Which ones?
 - Do you usually switch on your computer in the evenings?
 - Do you find it easy to switch off after work/school?
 - How good do you think your work/life balance is?
2. Listen to the results and see if you were right
3. Try to complete the sentences in the How to box from memory. Then listen and check your answers

How to report the results of a survey

Report exact results

- Nine (1)of twenty people stay at work late at least three times a week.
- 25% of the group had done some voluntary work. (2) said that a good way of relaxing was watching TV.
- Nobody liked doing this every evening.

Report approximate result

- (3) _____half the group regularly works late at the office.
- Hardly (4) _____ of them thought this was a bad thing.
- Many people are doing some kind of online course.
- Only a few people said they switched their computers on every evening.
- The (vast) (5) _____say they do at least one evening class.
- Only a (small) (6) _____would like to do more evening classes, however.

4. Write some questions for a survey. First, underline the parts of the questions in the first exercise that you can use such as do you ever use.....?

5. In pairs, choose which survey to do: the internet in people's lives or the arts in peoples' lives. Write six-eight questions for your survey.
6. Ask your questions to as many students as you can and make a note of their answers.
7. In pairs:
 - Collect the results of your survey and prepare to report them to the rest of the class. Use the how to box to help you.
 - Report the results of your survey to the class.
 - Were the results of any of the surveys surprising?

a. Aims of the Workshop

- identify some ways of presenting new lexical items
- Understand key principles of eliciting new language from the learners
- Consider the basic principles of checking the understanding of new language

b. Intended Learning Outcomes

- Become familiar with some ways of conveying the meaning of new language
- Indicate understanding of eliciting the meaning of new items from context
- Consider other ways of presenting lexical items and apply them to their teaching situation

Activity One: warm-up adopted from (Thornbury and Watkins, 2007, p. 20)

1. Choose one type of book to take to a country where you do not speak the language:

- a. a dictionary b. a phrase book c. a grammar reference book

2. Work in groups of three. Read the quotation. Do you agree with Wilkins? Why?

“The fact is that while without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed”.

Wilkins 1972

3. Read these entries from the Cambridge Advanced Learners' Dictionary. What information is given about:

- The form of each word
- The meaning of each word
- The use of each word

Euphemism /'ju:.fə.mi.zəm/ noun [C or U] a word or phrase used to avoid saying an unpleasant or offensive word: "Senior citizen" is a euphemism for "old person". The article made so much use of euphemism that often its meaning was unclear. Euphemistic /,ju:.fə'mis.tɪk/ adj euphemistically /,ju:.fə'mis.tɪ.kəl.i/ adv

Eyeball /'aɪ.bɔ:l/ US /'aɪ.bɑ:l/ verb [T] INFORMAL to look closely at someone: He eyeballed me across the bar.

heady /'hed.i/ adj having a powerful effect, making you feel slightly drunk or excited: a heady wine/perfume: In the heady days of their youth, they thought anything was possible.

4. Discuss what it means to know a word: for example, what do you need to know in order to use a word productively (in speaking or writing)?
5. What are the implications of the above for the teaching of vocabulary?

Activity Two: Learning about form and meaning adopted from (Thornbury and Watkins, 2007, p. 26)

1. Place the stages 1-6 below of vocabulary teaching sequence in the correct order and then match the rationales a-f with the correct step

1. Concept check the meaning of the new word. a. Learners need to hear the pronunciation before they can repeat it.

2. Convey the meaning of the new word by defining it or by using a visual.
 3. Write the new word on the board, indicating the word class and marking the stress
 4. Provide a clear oral model of the word
 5. Elicit the word. (if the learners do not know it, or pronounce it incorrectly, say the word yourself)
 6. Drill the word with learners both chorally and individually.
- b. If learners can provide the word, it is very affirming for them.
 - c. Learners need to feel sure about the meaning of the word before they say it.
 - d. In order for learners to be able to provide the word, the meaning needs to be clearly established.
 - e. Learners need a written record of the word and they need to find out how it is spelt.
 - f. It is often a good idea for learners to say the word before they see it written down, especially when the spelling of the word is at odds with its pronunciation.

a. Aims of the Workshop

- Understand the difference between speaking sub-skills (accuracy and fluency)
- Identify key problems that face teachers and students teaching and learning speaking
- Consider different approaches and techniques to developing the students' speaking skills

b. Intended Learning Outcomes

- Demonstrate developing understanding of the principles of speaking skill
- Become aware of the challenges that face teachers and learners dealing with speaking
- Apply various interactive techniques and activities to support the students develop their speaking skills

Activity One: Warm Up: getting your students speaking adopted from (British Council, 2014a)

1. Before you watch

- Think about your students. How do you teach them to speak English?
- What things make it difficult for them to learn to speak English well?
- Make notes in the box. Work in pairs if you can

Challenges for my students
a. b. c. d.

- Now, think about teaching your students. What challenges do you face in teaching speaking skills to your students?





Challenges for me
a. b. c. d.

2. Watch

- Now watch Programme 1
- Do the Thai teachers mention any of the challenges you talked about?
- Were there any you hadn't thought about?

3. Watch again

- Watch the programme again. Match the speakers with the opinions they give in the DVD.

			
Pathumporn	Montakarn	Supote	Sumalee
<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>

A 'The difficult thing for me is intonation and accent.'
B 'Students are afraid of making mistakes.'
C 'They want to speak exactly like the book.'
D 'The students are too shy.'
E 'They are better at reading aloud than speaking English naturally.'
F 'It's unnatural because we are all non-native speakers.'
G 'I talk too much. I'd like to be patient and wait for their responses.'
H 'Our Thai accents make it difficult to speak like native speakers.'
I 'If students can't say it right, they prefer to keep silent.'
J 'I think the speaking skill is more important than the other skills.'

Activity Two: Techniques: group work, warmers and controlled practice adopted from British Council (2014b)

1. Think about a successful speaking activity – one where your students spoke a lot of English and enjoyed the activity. Why did it work well?
2. Make some notes under the headings. Work in pairs if you can
 - a. What the teacher did:
 - How did you set up the activity?

 - Did you give them any useful language before the task?

 - When did you stop the activity?

 - Why was it useful for your students?

 - What would you do differently next time?

 - b. What the students did:
 - What did they talk about?

 - How did they know what to do?

 - Why did they enjoy it?

 - Did they work in pairs/groups/whole class?

 - How did they know when they had finished the activity?

Appendix Twenty Workshop (7) Collaborative Learning

a. The Aims of the Workshop

- Introduce the notion of collaborative learning to the participants
- Help the participants relate their students learning to the different learning styles and strategies
- consider different ways to approaching teaching in order to accommodate learners' differences and experiences

b. The Intended Learning Outcomes

- Demonstrate developing understanding of the different students learning styles and strategies
- Critically reflect on students' different learning styles and strategies
- Identify different students learning styles and strategies and relate them to their own students learning processes

Activity One: You are going to watch two short videos on classroom teaching. As we are watching, match the following notes to each video. Give number 1 to the first video and number 2 to the second video (adopted from Thaine 2010, p. 6).

1. Learners collaborate in small groups to solve problems and try out what they have previously learned (.....).
2. Because the number of students is too large, some students are more likely to become silent (.....).
3. The role of the teacher is a facilitator rather than director, coordinator rather than instructor and an inspirer rather than informer (.....).
4. The teacher is the transmitter of knowledge who controls learning process and the learner is the receiver who absorbs the knowledge (.....).
5. Learning is an active process that occurs when the individuals participate and shape their rather than transmitting knowledge; it is best achieved when the students engage in discussions and reflect on their experience (.....).
6. Learning occurs as learners listen to the teachers, write down notes, memorise knowledge and store it for later purposes (.....).
7. The learners in active collaborative discussions and problem-solving activities develop their intellectual and professional abilities and their communication skills (.....).
8. Collaborating with other students and working in groups provide opportunities for learners to practise various skills and develop their personal responsibilities for the progress and process of their learning (.....).
9. Learners work in their own to solve problems and cope with learning difficulty and refer back to their teacher for help and support (.....).
10. The teacher is responsible for learners' learning, and learners listen carefully to the teacher's instruction and do as they are told (.....).
 - Which of the two videos is similar to your teaching? Discuss this with your group and be prepared to report back to the other groups.

- What types of activities did the teacher used in collaborative learning video? Can you think of any other activities that you use or can be used in collaborative learning?

Activity Two: because people have diverse ways of learning, there are several types of learners. How do you like to learn? Take this quick quiz and see what type of learner you are. Compare your answers with your partner adopted from (adopted from British Council, 2016).

	Always	often	sometimes	rarely	Never
1. When I'm learning a new word, I need to write it down	1	2	3	4	5
2. I'd like my teacher to say new words so I can hear the correct pronunciation	1	2	3	4	5
3. I often look up pronunciation in the dictionary	1	2	3	4	5
4. I like to learn by standing up and talking to other students	1	2	3	4	5
5. I enjoy singing along to songs	1	2	3	4	5
6. I always read the sub-titles when they are on a DVD	1	2	3	4	5
7. I like making things with my hands	1	2	3	4	5
8. I can easily understand maps and charts	1	2	3	4	5
9. I like to say things out loud when I am reading them	1	2	3	4	5
10. I move my hands a lot when I'm talking	1	2	3	4	5
11. I find it easy to see pictures in my head	1	2	3	4	5
12. I like moving around the classroom and changing groups frequently	1	2	3	4	5
13. I prefer getting spoken rather than written instructions	1	2	3	4	5
14. I don't need to look at a speaker in order to follow what they are saying	1	2	3	4	5
15. I can't sit still for a very long time	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix Twenty-one Workshop (8) Classroom Management

This workshop focuses on classroom management (students grouping formats and seating arrangement procedures): large classes and pair/group work teaching, traditional/orderly rows seating, circle or horseshoe seating and separate tables. The theme of this workshop has been chosen because it was mentioned by the LEFLUTs, found in the literature of CPD and covered in the CPD programme delivered at the UK university. Secondly there is a pedagogical reason for choosing this workshop theme. Classroom management is very essential procedure to establish and maintain effective environment for learning; it also determines how teachers approach teaching and guides their chosen procedures, how the learners learn and what level of communication, interaction and practice is provided for them (Brophy, 1988; Atkinson, 1993; Lewis, 2002; Hoover, 2003; McLeod, 2003). In brief classroom management determines what and how teaching and learning happens in the classroom.

a. The Aims of the Workshop

- Introduce some views on different students grouping formats and seating arrangement procedures
- Encourage the participants to relate students grouping formats and seating arrangements to their own experiences as both teachers and learners themselves
- Encourage the participants develop their students grouping formats and seating arrangement procedures and adapt more interactive grouping and seating procedures

b. The Intended Learning Outcomes

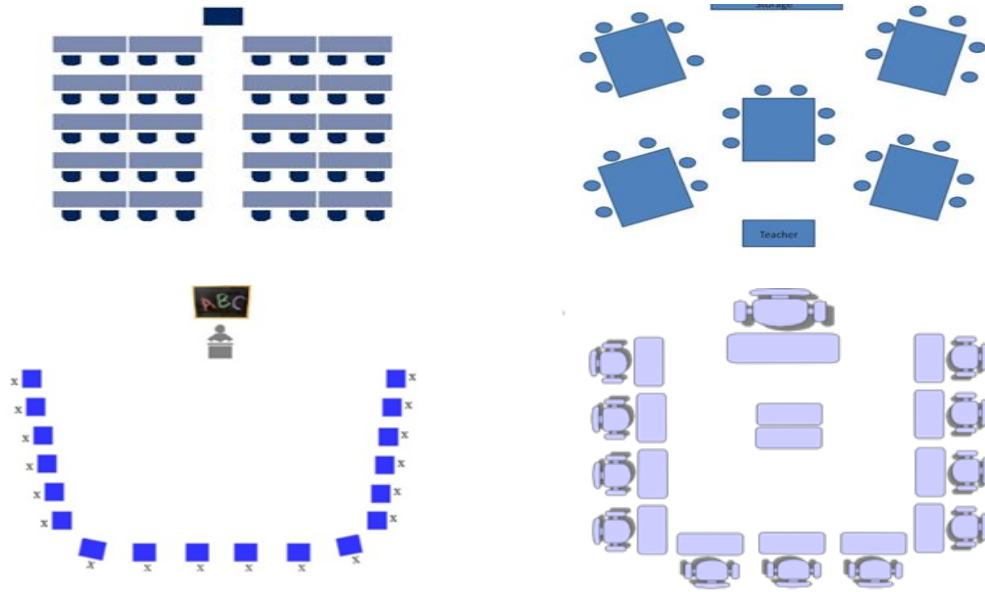
- Demonstrate developing understanding of different students grouping and seating arrangements
- Identify the different formats of students' groupings and seating arrangements
- Define what constitutes effective students grouping format and seating arrangements
- Apply different students grouping formats and seating arrangements according to the aim of lesson and activity requirement

Activity One: you are going to watch a video of a teacher teaching a classroom. As you are watching, think about the following (adopted from Thaine, 2010, pp. 10-12)

1. How are the teacher and the students interacting with each other?
2. Where is the teacher standing/sitting?
3. Who is controlling the classroom?
4. Are there any things you liked/did not like about this lesson? Why?
5. Is it similar to your classroom?

Activity Two: now look at pictures of different seating arrangements (adopted from Atkinson, 1993, pp. 40-42),

1. Match pictures 1-4 to the notes a-i below



- a. With this seating arrangement, the teacher has got more space to walk and monitor each group and offer help and feedback (.....).
- b. With small groups of students working separately, this is considered more interactive and involving (.....).
- c. Although the students' movement is restrained, the teacher and the students see each other very clearly (.....).
- d. Because the teacher can see and interact with all the students who too can see the teacher, this seating arrangement creates more interactive environment and potential for students to get engaged and involved (.....).
- e. Although the teacher can still use pair work and groupwork, sometimes it is difficult to involve all learners and keep them focused (.....).
- f. This type of arrangement is suitable for mixed-ability classes where learners benefit from working together in a collaborative environment (.....).
- g. Although the teacher is able to walk up and down the class between the rows to look at all the students, it makes teaching more teacher-centred (.....).
- h. With seating arrangement, the teacher can easily monitor and support one group while others are engaging in the activity (.....).
- i. Because the teacher works with students in a collaborative learning environment, this seating arrangement creates a sense of quality (.....).

Appendix Twenty-two Workshop (9) Lesson Planning

This workshop focuses on formal lesson planning with the aim of introducing the participants to the principles of lesson planning and encourage them apply those principles to their own classroom practice. Therefore, the participants would be involved in different but related activities on preparing the content of lesson plan. Lesson planning is introduced here because it is one of the ideas that the LEFLUTs have suggested as a key element to their CPD model and for effective classroom management and teaching practice. According to Harmer (2001), Harmer (2010) and Richards and Lockhart (1994), lesson planning gives teaching a framework and reminds teachers of what they are going to do and how they are going to do it. Richards (1998) also stressed that “the success with which a teacher conducts a lesson is often thought depend on the effectiveness with which the lesson was planned” (p. 103).

a. The Aim of the Workshop

- To outline the content of a formal lesson plan to the participants
- To raise their awareness about appropriate lesson aims and learning objectives

b. The Intended Learning Outcomes

- Identify what constitutes effective lesson planning
- Apply different elements of lesson planning to their classroom

Activity One: What kinds of things do you usually write a plan for in your daily lives? Discuss this in your group and write down your ideas. Prepare to share your ideas with the rest of the class adapted from Farrell (2002a, pp. 30-31).

Activity Two: Match the opinions about planning 1-8 with the rationale a-h. Compare your answer with your group adopted from Thaine (2010, p. 32):

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. I do not always do a detailed plan, but I always like to write down my aims and objectives... | a. <i>I find it difficult to think of those things on my feet.</i> |
| 2. My lesson plans are likely rough sketches of the lesson.... | b. <i>They usually find it reassuring to know where the lesson is heading.</i> |
| 3. I only ever plan half my lesson | c. <i>I like to have a clear idea of where I am heading in the lesson.</i> |
| 4. I just write down key things that I know will be difficult, for example, vocabulary concept checking questions... | d. <i>I never know what is going to happen with the learners and I like to be able to respond to them.</i> |
| 5. I just follow what is in the coursebook... | e. <i>I like to be flexible about the order of tasks in a lesson.</i> |
| 6. I try to make sure I have the right amount of material for the lesson... | f. <i>It is not realistic to plan in a lot of detail when teaching full-time.</i> |
| 7. I write down the lesson stages on sticky notes and sometimes move them around during the lesson... | g. <i>I hate the feeling that I might run out of things to do.</i> |
| 8. I write up the steps of the lesson on the board for learners... | h. <i>I do not see the need to reinvent the wheel.</i> |